

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
SEVENTH BIENNIAL CONFERENCE
OF THE
WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION
ASSOCIATIONS

books; postal service, telegraph, telephone, radio; ships, railways, airplanes; virtual shrinking of time and space; new neighbours, new human mass-relations.

3. Production and distribution of marketable goods; effect of scientific discovery and invention; the machine age; mass-production, mass-selling; private and governmental stimulation and restraint of international trade.
4. Present-world governments; rule by free popular control, and by dictation; the recently increased power—economic, social, and martial,—in the hands of government; the character, scope and limitations of international law.
5. Permanence and change in human beings; human nature, human training and human modification; nations' desires for power, wealth, population, rights, honour; goodwill, illwill; the emerging society of nations.

Part II. *The more pressing international problems of today; problems connected with:*

1. Raw materials, markets, trade routes; finance; coal, oil, water-power.
2. Pressure of population, migration, labour conditions, standards of living; public health, public morals.
3. Political boundaries, minorities, armaments; self-sufficiency and interdependence; isolation and co-operation.
4. National rights, international justice; extension and codification of international law; the enactment and sanctions of law.
5. National sovereignty; political organization of the society of nations.

Part III. *Ways and means now available for the pacific solutions of international problems*

1. Diplomacy, mediation, conciliation, conference; scientific examination and report; arbitration, adjudication.
2. Conferences, participated in by governments, to consider special questions in fields including those of economics, health, morals, and politics.

3. Standing public international organizations for dealing with matters of communication, labour, production, banking, health, defense, political administration.

Part IV. *Results achieved by pacific means*

1. Repatriation and exchange of minority populations.
2. Payment of indemnity for injury; the remission of indemnity.
3. Grant of autonomy or independence to subject peoples.
4. Transfer of national domain by exchange or purchase.
5. Pacific separation of states.
6. Other achievements including those of communication, boundaries, labour, markets, health, morals, international law, and administration.

The number of hours to be devoted to such an orientation course, and the total duration of the course—whether for a half-year or for a year—would best be decided by each college for itself. And each college would decide whether the course would be optional or required and whether it would be offered to students in the first or in the second year. In myself there is an inclination to believe that Freshmen might well forego this study until later; but that after the second year too many students will manage to escape the course; the Sophomore year seems to me best; but I'd have it come at any time rather than at no time at all.

3.

Such a proposal, I think, will speak for itself. But it may be well to say a word to two kinds of persons who perhaps will feel doubtful toward it.

The first kind of hesitant may be those who hold,—confidently, at times almost passionately—that all international problems are economic, and that relief must come by economic readjustment and by this alone. My proposal as it stands, some who are of this faith may feel, is worse than a waste of time; it darkens counsel; it blinds youth to what

youth must be made to see.

Such persons should feel free to re-write the plan into accord with their own conviction. For myself, they seem to be espousing an important part of the truth, but only a part at best. Experts in economics and in other fields must decide as to the conviction. But even if it be true that all international troubles are essentially economic, would there not still be value in making it sun-clear to students that the necessary economic readjustments can be attempted by methods other than the war method? College students might be made aware, impressively aware, that pacific ways are not only open, but often have been followed with success.

Others of the hesitant see, not economics, but goodwill as the key to open locked doors. And goodwill, they are apt to believe, does not come by political devices of settlement, but by acquaintance, by appreciating what other peoples are and what they have splendidly attained in literature, music, and painting, and in the loyalties of family and of nation. Persons of this faith see little value in knowing the varieties of procedure in matters of state.

The proposed course, it is true, is not concerned directly with goodwill. Yet it has important connections with it, since it deals with implements and encouragers of goodwill. Even as in the case of sick men, our friendly feeling for them is not enough until it acts through hospital, nurse, and doctor; so it is with sick nations. They, including ourselves, will be far on the road to health when we are determined to use those modern devices which bring to the problem dispassionate judgment, disciplined judgment, judgment careful of the common good. Unless this is done, goodwill remains mere sentiment, and allows policy to work its self-interested way toward injury of others and ourselves. The course here proposed is concerned with the means of making goodwill between nations effectual. It is a study of the ways by which goodwill can be expressed in practice.

And the practice of goodwill reacts on goodwill and strengthens it. For we know that outward conduct which is the habitual sign of an inward state, tends to fortify or

produce this inward state itself.

Our study will contribute also to understanding. For the misunderstanding which we in education especially would combat is not due to ignorance alone. Nations given over to mutual suspicion and misinterpretation may know much about one another. Their guarded mental attitude often springs from knowledge, from the sound knowledge that the other is dangerous and is bent on becoming still more dangerous.

Now the usual preparation for meeting an international peril includes not only defenses composed of armament and of economic strength, but includes also a mental defense. There is a hardening of feeling and of judgment against the nation that endangers us. It is not reasoned out but is quite reasonable. For no nation can without mistrust and hatred do its utmost damage to a neighbour. Thoughts only for our enemy's honesty and love of justice would paralyze our arms. Our neighbour must seem sinister; even his innocent acts must be misconstrued into proof of his dark design. Every assurance of his malice makes our blows harder, our will more resolute. Misunderstanding, thus in part, is motivated. Misunderstanding is a mental device, usually unrecognized by us, for meeting a national danger.

Now these motives for misunderstanding can be reduced by whatever reduces the danger. And while we cannot directly make our neighbour harmless, we can directly make ourselves less dangerous to him. And one of the sure ways to do this and to have him 'understand' us is to have him know that in every difficulty it is our fixed purpose to use all possible pacific means to dissolve the difficulty. We must prove it. And to prove it, mere assertions are not enough. The assertions must ring true; they must have conduct as their evidence; and this requires education, requires re-education in the ways of pacific solution. Orderly and respectful procedure, well studied, helps to reduce danger and deliver sledge-blows against the props of misunderstanding. The ground is thus cleared for a solid structure of goodwill.

Our orientation course, then, comes as no substitute for all other kinds of education for friendliness across national

boundaries. It joins heartily with them. It would help to build into will and action the sentiments and ideas earlier attained. Such a course or its equivalent is, I feel sure, a needed part of education today, now needed and long to be needed. For international problems will long be with us. If we were to solve the last problem that besets our world today, we should find new problems at our door tomorrow. As we become more civilized we discover, we create, problems, which will best be met by the tools of reason and goodwill. Few wars will come if they can come only after all other means have first been tried patiently, resolutely. It took ninety years of earnest discussion and resourcefulness before Norway and Sweden separated amicably in 1905; but it was possible by their intelligence, their moderation, their devotion.

College students should not only know of these things, but should be brought to creative thinking for them. In the sciences of nature many of our students gain a technical training and a will for fresh discovery. Nothing less should satisfy us in the region of social science we are now considering. Many students should also come to a disciplined zeal to see extended the present resources of pacific settlement. Weak means can be strengthened and new means can be found. An orientation course is not for research; it is for orientation; it gives students their bearings, shows them where the sun rises. The confusion dispelled, talented minds may be counted on to push on for further studies. The truth here has a temper and a cutting edge which should make every college ready to put it into the hands of those who must face our present troubled world.

[The writer wishes to express his debt and gratitude to several persons who have helped him in preparing this paper. Professor Benjamin R. Andrews of Columbia University has been a chief encourager, and courteously consented to present the paper at the Seventh Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, held in Tokyo, August, 1937. Dean Henry Lester Smith of Indiana University, and Mr. Edwin C. Johnson of the Committee on Militarism in Education, New York City, have generously supplied indispensable information.

In outlining the possible course of instruction described later, the writer owes much to his colleagues in the University of California's Committee on International Relations and particularly to three members of a sub-committee of it—Dr. E. D. Dickinson (International Law), Dr. R. J. Kerner (European History), and Dr. F. M. Russell (Political Science)—although each of them would doubtless have grave misgivings as to some, at least, of the specific proposals in this paper.]

Election of Officers

The Section elected as Chairman

Dr. H. L. Smith

and as Secretary

Mr. W. P. King

Resolutions

The following resolutions were adopted:

1. In order to give greater effectiveness at the earliest possible moment to the plan of David Starr Jordan to further peace through education in the schools of the world, be it resolved that the President of the World Federation be authorized to appoint a committee of eleven to be composed of the President and Secretary of the World Federation and nine additional members to enter into negotiations with the view to making a co-operative international plan with the International Chamber of Commerce, the Motion Picture Foundation, the Carnegie Endowment, Rockefeller Foundation, and ministries and departments of education of the countries represented in the World Federation and other organizations and agencies in order to secure the production and distribution of educational motion pictures in the schools of the world that will develop

a sound understanding of the customs, products, progress and life of the countries of the world and to negotiate with the producers of the commercial motion pictures throughout the world in order to develop motion pictures that will fairly and honestly interpret the life and customs of each country to every other country.

2. Resolved that the directors of the World Federation of Education Associations be requested to look into the possibility of developing plans for travel and foreign study by teachers under its auspices.
3. Resolved that we recommend to all teacher training institutions the teaching of international understanding in bettering contents or subject matter on methods of teaching, and we request the World Federation of Education Associations to forward this recommendation to the educational authorities and teacher training institutions of all lands.
4. Resolved that we recommend to higher institutions that they relate themselves to institutions abroad as sister institutions to promote the exchange of professors, students, international literature, etc.
5. We recommend that we recognize the great service of international student houses in New York, Paris and other educational centres in creating world understanding, and we urge the early establishment of similar international houses in other national centres of the world.
6. Resolved that we request that the name of the Herman-Jordan Committee be modified to read as follows: Herman-Jordan Committee on International Understanding through Education.
7. Resolved that we recommend to the higher institutions of learning the giving of orientation courses of pacific means of settlement on international problems and where military instruction is given that it be supplemented by parallel instruction on a non-compulsory method of international adjustment.

8. Resolved that foreign travel and study by teachers is an important means for international understanding, and that educational authorities in all lands be asked to provide means for encouraging the travel of our own teachers abroad and the reception of foreign teachers as visitors.
 9. Resolved that the Herman-Jordan Committee recommend the establishment of courses of instruction in all higher institutions of learning on methods of pacific settlement of international conflicts.
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Contributed Paper

**Just a Few Suggestions Regarding the
Question of Creating International
Goodwill**

Mr. Hiroshi Aizawa

*Councillor, Japanese Education Association,
Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 104)

HOME AND SCHOOL SECTION

Chairman : Mrs. J. K. Pettengill, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Washington, D. C., U. S. A.

Secretary : Mr. J. L. McCullough, Inspector of Schools, Toronto, Canada.

Co-operating Member : Mr. Sozo Kurahashi, Professor, Tokyo Higher Normal School for Women, Tokyo, Japan.

Place of Meeting : Room No. 18.

First Session *Wednesday, 4th August, 9 a.m.-12(noon)*

Second Session *Thursday, 5th August, 9 a.m.-12(noon)*

First Session

Opening Address of the Chairman

"It's a great privilege and happiness for us to be here at this Home and School Section. To both Mr. McCullough and myself it is the first experience at such a meeting. We're thinking that perhaps it is the first experience for many of you, so this programme will be one in which we all learn and grow together rather than having any or at least not very much of the wisdom here on the platform. The

Home and School Section



Mrs. J. K. Pettengill
Chairman



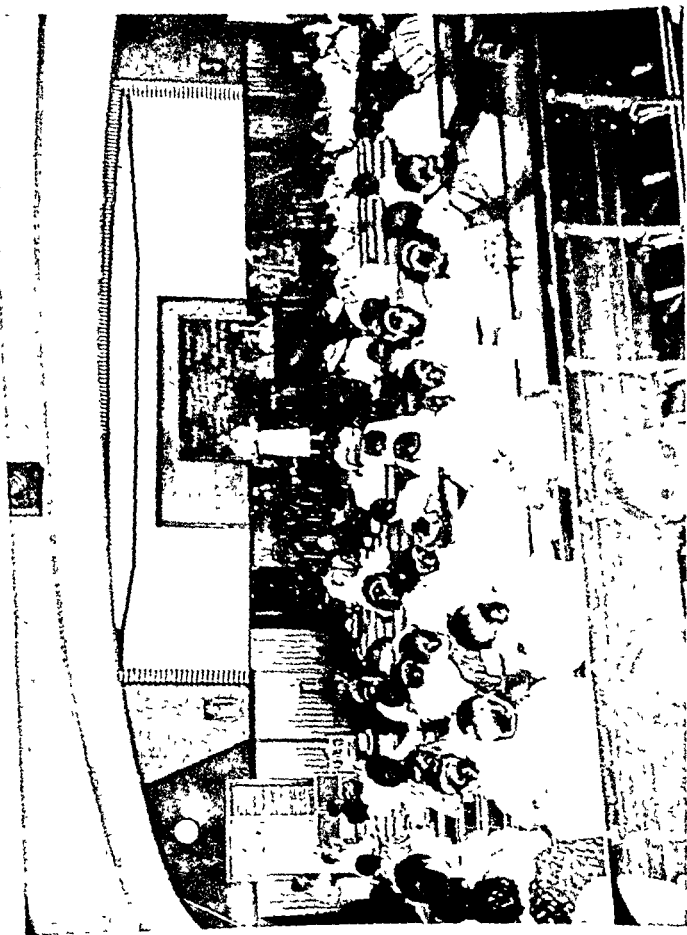
Mr. Sozo Kurahishi
Co-operating Member



Dr. Giuliana Stramigioli
(See P. 67)



Dr. Everett K. Erickson
(See P. 75)



Home and School Section in Session

wisdom is out among the group there and we're hoping before the end of this section that you will have brought to this section the things that are going to make it valuable for all of us.

I would like to tell you first about the International Federation of Home and School, a world-wide organization which ordinarily holds its meetings in conjunction with the World Federation of Education Associations' meetings. This year, owing apparently to circumstances unforeseen and over which the group had no control, the business meeting of the International Federation of Home and School is not being held here in connection with the W.F.E.A. meeting as in former biennial years, but has already taken place, it being held in Paris on July 24. At that time officers were elected. Those officers under ordinary circumstances would be serving in the capacity that Mr. McCullough and I are serving this morning. So we feel that we are here either by mistake or sufferance. We do not know who the officers of the organization are because they did not cable us that information. We do have a message of greetings from Ishbel MacDonald, who has been the president of the International Federation of Home and School, bringing her greetings to this world-wide group where we are holding our programme, wishing us well and saying that whatever resolutions you make up will be accepted as the resolutions of the entire group. So we have a very free hand; we can do some very interesting things. They have committed themselves to agree to whatever we do so we are quite free to go ahead with our programme. And so this morning we are presenting to you a programme which was planned by mail to which we find now most sadly there was no response, and so except for the very fine and very much looked forward to paper of our host country, nothing that appears on the programme this morning will actually happen. Miss Payne will give a presentation but aside from that we're going to do things that perhaps are not recorded. I am asking your indulgence while I present this morning an introductory thought for our consideration of some of the principles which

I believe are bound up in the home-school movement.

We have had in our experience in our various countries many variations of this type of co-operation, many experiments in an educational way, and yet I believe, that as you bring your experiences to this group you will find that we have some very common, fundamental, universal basis for the co-operation between home and school. Because those have been somewhat recorded I am reading this morning some of the principles which I think and which I know we all think, as together we have found, they are bound up in this important educational phrase.

The home-school movement today has become the answer to the three-fold, age-old problem of the parent: to know the child through child study and parent education; to co-operate with the schools in his training through shared participation with teachers and educators and to control and build his environment through the development of public opinion and civic activity.

Long before the movement was generally recognized, however, these impulses were all felt and acted upon by countless parents and teachers. The concerns of now existing associations and organizations all had their inception or their prototype in the unorganized and unrelated responses of preceding generations of adults as they faced the problems and the pressures of their day. Over a long period of years this accumulated response became apparent as a great and compelling movement.

In the evolution of this co-operation between home, school, and community, the developing trends, the activities undertaken, the accomplishments recorded, all derive their greatest significance from those values inherent in the movement rather than from the specific shaping and direction which has been the function of organizations through which the movement finds its expression.

In its generic sense a movement is defined as a long-

continued series of acts, events, and endeavours by a considerable number of people "tending more or less continuously toward some more or less defined end." Specifically, the folk movement has certain additional qualifications in that its action is largely unconscious, spontaneous, uncoordinated. It faces the problems of immediate needs, it looks to immediate satisfactions.

The folk movement is never the deliberate creation of directed ingenuity or planning. It is constantly being set in motion in new fields and under new conditions to meet newly-felt needs. It is motivated from within in answer to spontaneous impulses. Its strength lies not in its stability, which is usually negligible, but in its flexibility and its power to change constantly and readily to meet new and varying conditions. Its final effectiveness depends upon its ready and intelligent response to the impulses which arise within its rank and upon its use of the forces which are thus set in motion.

In any movement the matter of leadership is of tremendous importance since the qualities, contribution, training, and functioning of leaders are determined largely by the essential genius of the movement. Leadership in a folk movement presents especially marked and unique aspects. The leader becomes a leader because his act or idea interprets the current need or drift of the movement. The movement unconsciously draws from its rank those individuals whose purposes and activities are consonant with the dominating urge. Within the leader are concentrated and combined, for the time being, all the major impulses and drives that are founded in the group. The leader in a folk movement is in no sense an initiator or director; he is rather the exponent and expression of forces already at work. His worth lies in his ability to express, to combine, to concentrate, to interpret the multiplicity of impulses, acts, and ideals of the great group.

As time goes on the folk movement inevitably modifies somewhat its purely folk character. Particularly is this true when the movement finds expression through an organiza-

tion assuming thereby an outward form which tends constantly to become "arbitrary, positive, imperative." But the great contribution of such an organization to the social-educational world is made possible by consistent emphasis upon the folk character of the movement.

It is in the field of activities and interests, however, that there is evidenced the greatest consonance with the elements of the folk movement. Out of a tremendous field for its functioning, in terms of its own interests and needs and urges, the group chooses its own activities and expressions. Its programme develops in terms of apprehension of needs and adaptation to interests. The result is a constant change and variation and free choice of activity which makes accurate definition of the field of endeavour quite impossible.

After many years of existence the home-school movement still embodies and conserves the unique values of its folk origin. Under ever-emergent, constantly shifting and unregimented leadership it has produced incredible results. It has made possible the moving forward at a great mass of people along lines of their own choosing; people whose common interest centres around childhood, youth, home, school and community; people whose sole power lies simply in their thinking and acting together in terms of their common purpose.

This audience, representing the home-school interests of many countries, girdling the entire globe, has gathered here today to share past experiences, to face present problems and to set our faces hopefully, unitedly and joyously to the future. Particularly are we interested in those aspects of our work which lie immediately in the field of school education. Over a long period of years, the home-school movement has demonstrated most loyally its abiding faith in education. Constant endeavour has been made to understand the programme of the school, to relate more and more closely the agencies of home and the community to provide through parent education that knowledge which will create intelligent action. And all this has been done in terms of the whole child as he lives in his total environment.

Questions arise for wise answering. How may new understandings of social change and movement be acquired? And once acquired, how may these knowledges be put into action, made the instruments for better building of society in behalf of our children and our youth?

The first answer lies in a new wisdom on the part of parents and teachers. We must learn to think not alone in terms of the child before us, of the classroom of children whom we meet each day, of the immediate community's problems and provisions for childhood and youth. We must think rather of a whole world of children, whose future welfare depends largely upon our generation. We must think a little less, perhaps, of the specific educational interests of geographically limited areas and concern ourselves more than ever before with providing an adequate educational opportunity for children everywhere.

We must face this problem and assume the responsibilities that lie in its solution. Naturally, we shall do this best in terms of loyalties, and devotions, and aspirations for our own children, but the outcome must be a generous and understanding provision for all children, so that they may meet the responsibilities of life adequately and joyously.

Understanding of social conditions as well as of democracy as a form of daily living is necessary; and equally important is the ability to relate this knowledge to action. Fields of study imply areas of creative activity as well: social and family life; group relationships; delinquency and crime prevention; economic aspects of daily living; industry and human relationships; civic responsibility; cultural trends and spiritual heritage. Our threefold programme of parent education, home-school co-operation, and community developments is more important than ever before in the transforming of society."

Home Life and Home Education in Japan

Miss Kwan Tsukita

*Professor, Japan Women's University,
Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 106)

Home and School Organization in Canada

Miss Lillian J. Payne, B.A.

*Canadian National Federation of Home and
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I started out without any intention of giving a paper of any sort and was rather surprised and embarrassed to find my name with about three lines of other things given with it in the programme. And the Chairman has asked me to give you some possibly more practical points. I don't doubt that most of you covering this mission have home and school organizations, parent-teachers', or mothers' organizations in your own locality, but the Chairman has asked me to tell you something of how we in Canada reach the people, either those who have not home and school organizations or those who have, and to put our materials or propaganda (if I may use that word) before them.

First of all, in areas where there are no home and school organizations, the difficulty is, of course, that they have no ideas at all of what a home and school organization or parent-teachers' club, or a mothers' club is. We object to just

having mothers attend because we like to have the fathers come, and in fact we make a special effort to have the fathers in very often. The difficulty is that sometimes they have no idea about our work and aims. While we can get some publicity through newspapers, it isn't always read and sometimes it's misunderstood. One of our special endeavours in Canada in the part I come from, Ontario, is to reach the inspectors of schools. They can put things before their teachers and put them in such a way that the teachers must pay attention to them, and we have endeavoured to reach the inspectors both through letters and through personal conversations by our own executive members in Ontario and to meet them in groups and to reach them through the Department of Education which is our educational executive body in the Government. We try to reach the teachers themselves in their meetings every year. In different localities they hold teachers' institutes and we have tried very hard to have good speakers at those institutes and to obtain as much as possible time on the programmes, and often to present our ideals to them for their consideration. Our teachers meet in summer schools in various centres in each province, and sometimes we manage to have speakers there, but that is sometimes difficult because our people go away, as most of yours do in summer, and most of the speakers are somewhere else during the conventions. But we have managed to have speakers at various summer school groups. And that is one good way of reaching a great number of teachers at a time. In the last four or five years we have had permission in Ontario to reach specially the teachers in training at the normal colleges. We have had speakers in all five of our normal training colleges in Ontario for the past several years. We feel that is a good piece of work because it has presented the idea to the teachers before they have heard any criticism of the home and school work in any locality. We send letters to the principals of schools, presenting our aims and ideals, and often those are followed by a visit from a district organizer to talk over the matter and suggest ways and means of doing things. We also send out a good deal

of information about preparatory work in pamphlet form and definite suggestions as to how to conduct a meeting, how to get the people to a meeting, to talk over the matter of organizing a home and school association. I'm using the words home and school. I know the American people will feel that I am using the wrong ones, for they call them parent-teachers' organizations. The international term is home and school, and I believe it was chosen because it was felt that those two words were broader in their meaning, less limited in their application than parents and teachers.

Now when we have organizations formed we feel that we must keep before the people the ideals of the organization and try to direct the work and study so that the people in the organization won't be led astray into too much money-making and social meetings and, I'm afraid, sometimes, in some of our organizations, into card playing and things of that sort, often for money raising but falling far short of our ideals.

We prepare lists of speakers. This is one of our smaller things we do. If we cannot send speakers out, we send a person who might be able to give a persuasive talk, I was going to say, address. It's better to be an informal talker at a meeting. The local doctor, the medical house officer, or the school principal is asked to talk on school methods and the aims of the school itself. Sometimes a larger organization, that is to say, a group of clubs in a council, will prepare a series of lectures. I'm thinking of the city of Hamilton, Ontario, where last year and the previous winter they had a series of ten lectures each winter by the doctor who was in charge of the mental hospital, attended by about five hundred of their home and school members. He talked on mental health and the psychology of children and answered personal questions, very often from the parents who were there. They were a very enlightening series of addresses. Sometimes in the country schools it's very difficult to get speakers. A small school miles and miles away from anywhere else has a very difficult time getting even a local doctor who is much too busy to take the time to talk to a group of parents.

We collect papers, the printed papers that have been given at other places; we print them ourselves occasionally; we collect them from magazines; we collect them from newspapers; we ask the people who have given talks to give us copies. We bind them in special folders and we send out lists of these as loan papers which may be had for the asking. The only thing the local people have to do is to post them back to us and pay two or three cents postage. That gives the people a chance to read the actual words of the speaker. I'm taking back a number of pamphlets and speeches that have been given here in this section and in others, and I know they're going into our loan paper collection.

We give a good deal of assistance to the formation of study groups. That is the main object of our organization. In most places we try to have the people in small groups study either a book or a magazine article, to discuss it and apply it to their own particular problem. The difficulty very often is leadership, someone who will sit in some of the groups and to suggest that you ask a question, and that somebody else should answer it, or you should look the question up and prepare the answer for another meeting. It takes some tact, courtesy, and a good deal of planning to do that sort of thing. We're fortunate in Ontario in having a school of child study in the city of Toronto which has made it possible for a great many parents to come and take a short course of about a week, say from Monday to Friday, in leadership and some outlines of child psychology and mental hygiene generally, which prepares them for dealing with the questions which would be brought out in study groups. We have in Ontario now a good many of these study groups, though we have really only urged this matter very seriously for about the last three years. A good deal of it went on before that but as an organization we have distinctly urged it for the last three years. The latest figures I have show that Ontario has 370 local associations, including upward of 100 study groups with a membership of something over 16,000. We'd like to make it a great many more. In British Columbia, the Pacific Coast province, there were 100

associations with a membership of about 4,000, with 40 study groups. Unfortunately these are very largely centred about Vancouver. Incidentally the University of British Columbia is providing them with speakers and a course of lectures each spring, and they had a very large response and expect to have an even greater one in the coming year. Nova Scotia, our Atlantic province, a small province with a few large towns or cities and a great many small one-room country schools, is going ahead very quickly in its organizations and has not had time to do much but organize as far as the leaders were concerned. They now have 140 clubs with a membership of about 2,500, and the last report was that they had about 20 study groups. They incidentally have been studying an English book, "Understanding the Child," and Professor Fletcher of Dalhousie University prepared a very elaborate questionnaire on each section of that book which has met a very great need among those people. They have very few local leaders. We're hoping that within this next year that Nova Scotia will see fit to print that book in a pamphlet form so that it may be available for the rest of Canada.

- Then we loan books. In Ontario, especially, we now have a library of about 500 books. It was organized as a memorial to the founder of the home and school movement in Ontario, Mrs. A. C. Crawford, and we call it the Crawford Memorial Library. Every year we set aside a small sum of money and add to that an equal sum which is enough to provide a good number of books but we have to leave out some of the older ones because these books are in constant demand unfortunately, some in such constant demand that we can't see them. Then we don't like to see two or three of the same books on hand. Again there is no charge for them except for the return postage. Very often the book is used for a month or so for a study group so that the one time the book goes out doesn't represent the use that is made of it.

Then we hold some big meetings. In Ontario we hold a yearly convention at which we have had as many as nine hundred parents and teachers and others who are interested

in home and school work. It meets at the same time as our large Ontario Educational Association and the Home and School Section bears much the same relation on the Ontario Educational Association as the International Home and School Federation bears to the World Federation of Education Associations. We're very proud to have been affiliated some years ago with that big body.

What I'm most interested in is the publication work. For nearly ten years now I have edited the magazine sent out by the Ontario Federation. I think every home and school organization in America, in State or Province, now sends out some form of publication. This isn't the British Columbia one; it's the report of the last International Meeting, but the British Columbia publication comes out in this form. Our *Ontario Home and School Review* comes out in this form. *The Nova Scotia Parent-Teachers' Quarterly*, now called the *Home and School Quarterly*, comes out in book form, and I have here the *Parents' Review* of Great Britain. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers of the United States publishes the *National Parent-Teacher Magazine*, and most of us have been getting a small pamphlet of reprints from that magazine. Some years ago the National Congress prepared a handbook of information and for some years in Canada we found it necessary to use that when we wanted to give a fairly complete outline of home and school or parent-teacher work. Two years ago we found it absolutely necessary to prepare our own handbook, and now it comes out in this form. I'm sorry I only have one copy. If anyone is interested in it I might be persuaded to spare that one. In the magazine *The Home and School Review* we try to put over several things. First of all, information about the work that's being done by our own local associations, not in very great detail, although we try to give as much information as possible. Sometimes we present a short résumé of an address, or a piece of work that has been done and we want to present that in detail as suggestions to others as work that they may do. We try to pass on to our local organizations suggestions of word from the various departments in the provincial

organizations. We have members who have grown up through the work themselves and we have been specially interested in some branches of study, such as religious education, ethics, home economics, school systems, parliamentary procedure and the conduct of meetings, etc. Short papers are prepared which are usually printed and sent out so that others may benefit from them. We print a good many of the papers, as many as we have room for, that are given at various clubs and those are available for everybody else to read. We also make a few business statements and give business notices from our central office, and there is a little editorial comment on the things that are going on, and some advertisements, too. We can't get away from that because that provides us with the money to print the magazines. We started this magazine about sixteen years ago as pure propaganda material. It was then just a small leaflet of four pages but later grew to eight pages, and we distributed it rather freely to educational organizations and to educators, to school principals, to our own officers and to the officers of our local organizations. Here are two copies. As time went on and times got hard, we found that that was taking a great deal too much money. We couldn't afford to do it. We began to charge those who would pay twenty-five cents Canadian for the three copies. We had a good many subscriptions but not enough. We started with only three numbers a year but later we printed four numbers a year. The fourth number was a report of the annual meeting and contained in brief the reports of as many of the local organizations as were sent in. That's what this number is, the report of the last annual meeting, and it contains about 170 reports of local organizations.

A little while after I undertook the preparation of the magazine, we decided to put a coloured cover on it. We got it through the pamphlet stage altogether and shortly after we accepted advertisements. We were very proud to be able to announce at our annual convention last Easter that we had made the magazine pay for itself for the first time in history. We had a balance of \$1.04, or something like that, but that

was an accomplishment for a home and school organization. I'd be glad to answer questions if I'm able to do so. I don't pretend to be an authority at all on these things but I can answer a good many questions about Canadian organizations and materials if anyone would want to ask me.

Second Session

**The Woman and the Child Education
in Fascist Italy**

Dr. Giuliana Stramigioli

Professor, Royal University of Rome, Rome, Italy

I would like to say only a few words about the contribution of women to the children's education in the new atmosphere which has been created in Italy by 15 years of Fascist Régime.

We cannot of course speak of the influence that the mother has upon the formation of the children's spirit as characteristic of a nation. What I am referring to is not only the influence of the mother in the usual and natural way but women's contribution to the formation of the character of the children and to an education which aims to bring them up as the Italians of tomorrow and as worthy citizens of the new Fascist Italy, which aims to teach them to be able to fulfil their duties towards the country as men and women.

I should like to make this point quite clear. I have often heard very inexact opinions about the condition of women in Italy. It is true that in Italy women's activity, as compared with the men's, is relatively limited, but it is also true that women play an important part in the national life of present-

day Italy.

According to the Fascist conception of life, every citizen, man or woman, has his own place in national life and must fulfil the duties it implies. Therefore women have to deal chiefly with activities suited to femininity, that is to say, family activities, children's education and social assistance.

Professor del Re has already spoken about the Opera Nazionale Balilla in the Health Section; I would like only to emphasize the fact that in the women's organization, besides the training of the spirit and the bodies of the girls, another training is given, consisting of a theoretical and a practical part, whose aim is to prepare the future women for the task of children's education in the school and in the Opera Balilla, and for the task of collaboration by mothers to the education children receive in those institutions.

This preparation gives the girls a deep consciousness of the importance of their work as mothers and as educators. It makes them ready to answer any appeal of their country. The importance of this consciousness is very great as the women have an important part in the children's education. Many of the primary school teachers are women and in the middle schools also there are many women teachers.

In many cases the children's spiritual world is bounded by two women, the mother and the teacher, in the first years of their spiritual life just when their spirits are more open and ready to receive ideas and impressions which will have a bearing upon all their lives.

The Italian woman has become deeply conscious of this high task she has in the national life. Fifteen years of Fascist Régime have brought about the highest efficiency in the traditional virtues of the Italian woman, who in the last years have renewed the most famous examples of strength and sacrifice of the Roman women.

The women activities in child education are divided in two parts: mother's education and school and Opera Balilla education. They are not separate for one is not complete without the other. This education deals with the spiritual and the material life of the child because the Fascist doctrine re-

frains from considering the individual as a material entity only, and on the other hand it refrains also from stressing too much the importance of the spiritual elements. The individual is a harmonic composition of spirit and body; both must be cultivated and taken care of.

Therefore, the mother, as soon as the child's mind is open to the spiritual life, begins to teach him the most simple principles of his duties towards his country and society; on the other hand, through the Mother and Child Welfare Society, she receives all manner of assistance; that is to say, advice concerning the proper upbringing of her child and material aid which consists of medicines and also food for the working classes. In this way the child's health and his mind both received great care. When the child enters the Opera Balilla organization as *Figlio della Lupa*, the mother receives a new collaborator. The child becomes *Figlio della Lupa* theoretically at six years of age, but practically he may enter this organization when he reaches the fifth year.

This first section of the Opera Balilla is completely entrusted to women, who are graduated from the Orvieto Academy of Physical Education.

The children meet at this time a new contribution to their education; they take part in frequent meetings during which they are given simple physical exercises and games devised to improve their physical stamina.

They begin at this time also to be a part of the social organization of the Fascist State and acquire, therefore, a national consciousness; wearing a military style uniform, they begin to feel themselves all equal in their duties towards their country, besides the different contributions that their different attitudes and the personal characteristics are going to give to the country.

I want to emphasize that the Fascist educational system does not aim to level the children's personality any more than it does for men. The children's personality on the contrary is allowed to develop freely; but at the same time it is sought to develop the feeling of solidarity among all who live as members of the same nation. It tries to make them realize

that man is not an entity existing by itself, but that he is a cell of a great organism, a part of the many parts which constitute the nation and that all must be sacrificed to the common good.

When children are eight years old, their organization in the Opera Balilla passes under the care of male teachers; but very often the woman continues to give her contribution as primary school teacher. At this time the activities of the women are chiefly concerned with girls' organizations in the Opera Balilla, that is to say Piccole Italiane, from 8 to 14, and Giovani Italiane, from 14 to 18.

Together with the training which aims at a physical development by means of sports, rhythmical gymnastics, dances, in this period purely feminine activities begin to receive much attention, such as domestic economics and child education. Lessons upon the way of bringing up children are given, both theoretical and practical, the latter consisting in taking care of Hospice children under the teacher's care.

I desire to draw your attention to the fact that this receives an enthusiastic support from the young girls of Italy, whatever their social condition. There is a special school which is attended not only by girls who want to get a position as kindergarten teachers, but also by girls of good birth who wish to prepare for their future task as mothers.

This same activity on a wider scale is continued by the University Women Student Fascist Associations and by the Young Fascist Associations, but these are more concerned with social services. On the contrary, the Orvieto Physical Education Academy is completely dedicated to girls' education. The girls who are graduated from high school may enter it and stay there for two years pursuing a course of a theoretical and practical studies and training. After two years they enter as teachers into the Opera Balilla organizations, where they are responsible for all feminine youth organizations and also for physical education in the Middle and High Schools.

This is a very brief outline of women's contributions to the children's education and therefore to the youth movement which is one of the most characteristic features of the Fascist

Movement. This contribution is without any doubt very important for the success of the wide movement which forms one of the most vital parts of the Fascist new vision of life, the aim of which is to bring up to the full the moral and spiritual characteristics of the Italian nation, which have been handed down to us in unbroken continuity by our glorious ancestors who created the Roman civilization, over 2,700 years ago.

Co-operation between Home and School

Mr. Yoshiki Takasaki

Principal, Asagaya Kindergarten, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 122)

Home-School Contribution to World Fellowship

Dr. Herminio Velarde

Professor, University of the Philippines,

Manila, P. I.

“Do unto others what you would have done unto you.”

No community, no nation can be peaceful and happy unless the people constituting them are united in the spirit of good fellowship.

The place to begin to cultivate good fellowship is in the home and the school. The home is the simplest social unit where the relationship of human kind takes its origin. It is

in the home where we learn the first idea of community life. It is here where interdependence is developed and where good fellowship is formed. The true spirit of love, of service and of mutual respect are fundamentally developed in the homes.

Education for good fellowship is not impossible since all children are born without prejudices nor hatred against each other. It is only the influence of unfavourable surroundings and environments which destroys the spirit of unity among people and causes dissensions and misunderstandings between them. In fact, children of different families and nationalities play together and mix together. They feel themselves equal to each other. There truly exists a genuine fellowship among them. It is not until someone prohibits their association and their playing together that they bring to an end their interrelations. The feeling of indifference then begins to exist among them which later on leads to misunderstanding. The school plays an important rôle in the promotion of good fellowship among people. Here children of different families play together and mingle together. They are taught good manners and right conduct in the school. The home and the school therefore play very important rôles in the advancement of good fellowship among the peoples and nations of the world. All communities and all nations have their fine traits, good habits and customs; all contributing to make the peoples of this world peace-loving, happy and ready to extend co-operation to each other. The Philippines has also its old traditions, customs and practices which make its people peaceful, friendly and neighbourly.

I wish to describe briefly to you some inherent qualities which are instrumental in fostering and bringing about co-operation and goodwill among people. Knowing my own people best, allow me to take them for an illustration. As a people, we believe in the old golden rule and proverb: "Do unto others what you would have done unto you." This is the rule guiding the actions of our people in their relationship among themselves and with their neighbours.

We love peace and happiness. In the constitution of our Commonwealth, we have declared our renunciation of war as an instrument of national policy! This declaration is the fundamental law of our land and makes clear our desire for peace and goodwill.

Over 80% of our people live a simple country life. They have old customs and traditions handed down from their forefathers, the most striking features of which are:

- (a) Hospitality
- (b) Courtesy
- (c) Self-Restraint

(a) Hospitality.—Our people are generally known by foreigners for their hospitality. I am now, however, convinced from what I have already seen, that the Japanese people are perhaps more hospitable. Visitors are received all over the Philippines by our people with a genuine feeling of hospitality. Those who come to us and experience the hospitality of our homes leave us with their hearts full of satisfaction and speak well of our good fellowship towards them. This trait is inherent among our people. We open wide the doors of our humble dwellings to all. No matter how simple or poor they are they will offer to their visitors the best at their command. They will undergo various sacrifices to make them comfortable and happy.

(b) Courtesy.—This is very common among our people. It is observed among our masses who have hardly had any school education. Some claim that this is due to the influence of foreign domination. I believe, however, that courtesy cannot be brought about by an external force but it is the flowering of life. Courtesy is observed in homes and in the public places and in all walks of the Filipino life. The parents teach their young children good manners and right conduct from their early infancy. We have an old saying in Tagalog which runs as follows:

“Ang galang ay huwag ikahihyang gawin, sapagka’t and kagalangan ay kapurihan nang gumagalang,”

which literally means that one should not be ashamed to

practise a respectful attitude for the honour goes to one who exercises it.

(c) Self-Restraint.—Our people desire always to live a good, peaceful and civic life. While some have developed rather strongly our so-called "amor propio" or self-pride, yet self-restraint is a pre-eminent characteristic of our people. Our expression of "paciencia na" or, forget it, is the graphic expression of our self-restraint. Our people can tolerate a great deal of personal humiliations, but they will firmly stand for principles and honour.

I have, in brief, summarized to you a few of our traditions and traits as a people. We live in the isolated and separated islands and have nevertheless developed good fellowship as a part of our national characteristics. These qualities which are observed in the homes of our people, particularly the poor, I believe, contribute largely to the happiness of our nation and to our feeling of friendship to our neighbours.

Health and Physical Education in the United States

Mr. Russell L. Durgin

*Honorary Secretary, Y. M. C. A., Tokyo, Japan,
Representing the American Association
for Health and Physical Education*

[This paper should have appeared in the programme of the Health Section, but owing to lack of time and space it was read in this Section. A reprint of this paper, however, will be found in the Section to which it properly belongs (Vol. II, P. 643).]

Short Talks

Parent-Teachers' Association

Dr. Everett K. Erickson

*Assistant Professor of Education, University
of Alaska, College, Alaska*

I would rather tell you a good fish story or several fish stories of the territory for three reasons: first, the opportunity to talk about our excellent fishing conditions would help me to become considerably cooler because we do have the glacial breezes at all times. Secondly, I can tell you some excellent fish stories because we do have the fish. Thirdly, I can't tell you very much about the Home-School idea in the Territory of Alaska because it isn't too successful.

I can speak largely from my experience of a P.T.A. as at Juneau I was a member of the staff for five years. For two years we did have a Parent-Teachers' Association. However, at the beginning of the third year that I was there, the superintendent discussed the matter of the P.T.A. with the parents and with the teachers. He thought that the organization did not justify its existence. Usually the teachers outnumbered the parents at all meetings. The parents weren't interested and some of the teachers were very glad of the opportunity to drop the idea. In the smaller communities in Alaska, however, the P.T.A. plays a vital part in the social and educational welfare of the community. There seems to be a very close contact. Perhaps that existing condition is very similar to conditions in other small communities throughout the world. I have often thought about this matter of Home and School and I am firmly convinced that the school must do something to create a greater educational interest within the home. It seems to me that the home should be brought to the school and not the school to the home for the

simple reason that teachers in the homes are not on an equal footing. Fortunately in the Territory the teachers are on an equal footing. A teacher who doesn't average at least one dinner a week in a private home really should be examined by a psychiatrist. In other words, the teachers are very popular with the parents. The point that I am trying to bring out is this: I can't think of a single dinner engagement that I've had at which problems of the school were discussed. We talk about everything else; the New Deal, particularly the mathematical project, some of you people have heard considerably about it. We talk about economic conditions. I know in my own case, when I was in public school work, that if the parents had come to the school and discussed the problems with the teachers the children would have done far better work. The students in our schools don't like to have their parents come to school. Why, I don't know. Perhaps that condition doesn't exist elsewhere. So, in the Territory of Alaska, I feel that we have a real problem to solve and any suggestions that I may receive will be gladly relayed to the various parts of the Territory. I don't believe that I can give a very definite report for the simple reason that as I have already explained, the P.T.A. does not play a strong part in the Territory.

[Dr. Erickson was followed by Dr. Hermino Velarde (P.I.), Mrs. R. P. Alexander (Japan), Mr. Genjiro Yoshida (Japan), Mr. Tetsuya Kamimura (Japan), and Miss Lillian Payne (Canada). They talked briefly about the problem of "Home and School" in their respective countries.]

Summary

At the close of the session the Chairman summarized the programme as it had been presented "Your programme indicates that there would be an attempt at a summary. So definitely has the programme developed in spite of the fact that we have many disappointments, I'm sure most of you are carrying away summarized very neatly and logically in your minds the programme as it has been presented.

Our first day, as you remember, we majored on the fundamental basis of the home-school movement--parent education. We spoke of the part that the home must always play in education, of the fact that education cannot accomplish what we all want it to accomplish without the support, the knowledge and the definite promotion given by the home; and so we talked almost wholly that first morning, yesterday, of parent education, realizing, however, that parents who are educated as individual parents only cannot take care of the situation. We took our considerations into the field of home-school co-operation. A body of informed parents must begin to put their information into active service and use. It must eventuate in activity, in actual achievement if there is to be the ideal situation developed; and so we have been talking today about how home and school may co-operate; and we have not only seen concrete instances, but we have faced rather courageously, it seems to me, and with clear eyes, seeing our weaknesses as well as our strength the problems of home-school co-operation.

One of the questions which was written and brought to the desk indicates another of those questions which is always before us. How do we get two agencies functioning in different fields to be so set up; how do we get them so set up that they can function harmoniously? It's a big question and hundreds and thousands of organizations all over the world are trying to answer that question by experimentation, by constructive activities in their fields, and it is only thus that

that question can be answered. When every country brings to some common spot its findings in the solution of how to get parents and teachers moving at equal pace towards the same goal, then we will have begun to attain our goal.

And last of all, may I emphasize that this parent education, home-school movement, is not complete unless it does something to the total life of the world. Home and school in the fortunate countries represented here this morning, working together hand in hand towards some far-off idea of world fellowship and world brotherhood can only come to terms as we recognize our responsibility to a total society. Parent education can be very selfish. Home-school co-operation can be very much localized, but the community development that grows out of them and sweeps around the world omitting no country including happily all is the home-school movement in which you and I and those thousands and millions of people whom we represent here this morning are definitely interested. Home-school co-operation must become world contribution, and so I feel that it has done so this morning as we've found again and again the note of generosity, of sacrifice, of seeing the other side though we be half the world away, and it is on that note that we would like to close our meeting this morning. Parent, teacher, banded together for a world's better ship and happy for children to grow in—that is our ideal."

Election of Officers

The election of officers is left to the International Federation of Home and School as has been the usual practice in the past.

Resolutions

The following resolutions were adopted:

Since education which is effective is a co-operative venture, involving both the home and parent education as well as the school and formal education ;

Since the continuity and co-ordination of the educational programme is best assured by an informed public which participates in the development of policies and programmes ;

And since rapidly changing social, economic and political conditions affecting family life make it increasingly important that plans for co-operative effort on the part of parents and teachers be developed on the basis of sound educational philosophy and procedure ;

Be it resolved : That teachers and educators throughout the world be urged to continue to promote, through individual and group support and participation, such co-operative efforts as are found effective and harmonious in meeting the common interests and problems of home and school.

And further be it resolved : That parents and teachers everywhere be called upon to unite in unremitting endeavour to give to the world—through parent education, home-school co-operation and civic devotion—a new generation of men and women who have achieved international understanding, who practise world co-operation and friendship and who love universal justice and goodwill.

Contributed Paper

Parent Education in North America

Miss Marie Butts

International Bureau, Geneva, Switzerland

As soon as any parent becomes vitally interested in the Parent-Teachers' Association he or she belongs to, and earnestly goes about getting the school and the home to work together towards solving the many problems of child life and of adolescence that occur every day in our complex and ill-regulated world, this parent begins to realize how badly prepared he himself and a large number of men and women are for the duties involved in marriage and parenthood. "Parent Education" has quite naturally grown out of the need, felt and expressed by parents, and it is gradually extending its scope and influence as the need is evermore acutely realized by a constantly growing number of people.

Probably boys and girls have always been insufficiently prepared for the basic and most universal functions, those of mate and parent. Already in Victorian days, "mothers' meetings" were held in connection with churches and home-missions, because it was recognized that the majority of women of the working class did not know how to achieve good housekeeping within a meagre income, how to adjust the family satisfactorily to the whole community, and how to train the children, but it was assumed that "educated" women did. Nowadays, our ideas of the level that should be reached by the home have vastly expanded, the development of child psychology has made available an ever-increasing body of specialized information, psycho-analysis has brought out how pitifully and unnecessarily ill-adjusted to one another are many partners in marriage, not to mention all kinds of other mal-adjustments; therefore well-to-do and well educated

men and women are feeling that their need in this realm is as great as that of their under-privileged contemporaries. No wonder then that parent education is spreading rapidly.

The country where parent-teachers' associations were first established and first achieved real importance,⁽¹⁾ where they first systematically undertook parent education, and where that form of education is most widely practised today, is North America; hence this report will concern itself only with the United States, except for one example taken from Canada.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers does a great amount of fine work in the field of parent education. Its objects are:

"To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth.

To bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may co-operate intelligently in the training of the child, and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education."

The National Congress holds parent-teacher summer institutes (e. g., at the University of Maryland, at Cornell University, Ithaca, and at the University of Vermont), dealing with home education as well as school education. It arranges for radio talks by specialists in child training and parent education, presents to public libraries parent-teacher book-shelves consisting of some of its literature on child study. Its excellent and widely-read magazine *The National Parent Teacher*,

(1) The Forty-First Annual Convention of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, to be held in Richmond, Virginia, May 3-7, 1937, to consider "The Place of the Home in the Community," will gather together the representatives of more than 25,000 parent-teacher associations, with a total membership of nearly 2 million members. The International Federation of Home and School remembers with gratitude the delightful speech made by the National President of the American Organization, Mrs. B. F. Langworthy, at its last conference (Oxford, August, 1935).

formerly called *Child Welfare*, is concerned mainly with parent education.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers was first in the field, but the importance of parent education has come to be so well recognized that Federal and State Governments and local communities now take part in the movement.

In the foreword to a Bulletin on *Parent Education Opportunities*,⁽¹⁾ Dr. Studebaker, U.S. Commissioner of Education, writes:

"The professional aspect of parent education has been developed in less than a decade. Professional leaders have been trained in colleges and universities, and literature on the subjects of child growth and parent education has been created for the use of leaders, instructors, and parents. The importance of still further developing this field of education cannot be overestimated in the face of the economic adjustments necessary in the home and in view of the expressed desire of parents throughout the country for help in analyzing and solving their problems."

The Bulletin states the aims of parent education as follows:

"The purposes of parent education work are to furnish parents with sound principles for application to their home and family situations; to change the attitudes, methods, and practices of parents in dealing with the problems of child training; and to insure to parents, through better understanding, more effective practices and greater satisfaction in their tasks. To fulfil these purposes, courses have been established in colleges and universities to train professional and lay leaders; facilities have been arranged to furnish opportunity for research, observation, and participation in such centres as laboratories, nursery schools, kindergartens, child guidance clinics, etc.; literature for the use of professional leaders,

(1) *Parent Education Opportunities*, by Ellen C. Lombard, Associate Specialist in Parent Education. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1935, No. 3., 60 p. illus.

and authoritative materials for the use of lay leaders and parents have been made available.

Several large universities have taken a leading part in developing the professional aspect of parent education, and colleges and State teachers colleges have made their contributions in this field. Campus courses, correspondence courses, courses in summer sessions, and extension courses in parent education and child development were offered in 1932-1933 in one or more colleges and universities in at least 25 states."

Besides the Parent-Teachers' Associations, other private organizations in the U.S.A. have worked and are working successfully at the education of parents. Such is, for instance, the Child Study Association of America with its splendid output of first-rate literature, its quarterly magazine *Child Study*, and its Consultation Service. Established in 1928, this service only sought at first to help parents to achieve greater insight into their relationships with their children, but the staff "has come increasingly to the realization that children's problems are never isolated, that they are almost always organically related to the life of the family as a whole and perhaps especially to the lives of the parents. Today the Consultation Service is being called upon increasingly to give counsel to parents in matters pertaining to marriage adjustments and family relationships."⁽¹⁾

Such again, on a local scale, is the Institute of Family Relations at Los Angeles, which has three Departments: Research, Education, and Personal Service. Or the Institute of Family Service of the Cleveland Associated Charities, etc.

Some universities and schools have started agencies for counselling parents or students, or both, so that family relationships may become more harmonious and more helpful. Teachers College, Columbia University, for instance has founded (1932) a Consultation Bureau of the Child Development Institute, started as a service for the members of the

(1) *Parent Education*, April-May, 1936

staff of Columbia University and the families of children in the University schools: The Merrill-Palmer School, of Detroit, has established (1932) an Advisory Service for College Women, born of the "staff's experience in counselling the mothers of the children in its nursery and play groups"; the University of North Carolina has founded a Consultation Service, etc.

The American Association of University Women, the American Home Economics Association, the American Child Health Association, the Association for Childhood Education and other large organizations are all doing good work in parent education. *The Parents' Magazine*, founded in 1926 and called at first *Children, the Magazine, for Parents*, has the clearly stated purpose of popularizing material in the field of child study and parent education. It has a circulation of over 350,000, and magazines directly patterned on it have been started in England and China.

The National Council of Parent Education (66 East 42nd Street, New York City) has been since 1928 an extremely useful clearing-house and central agency "to provide strength, direction and co-ordination to the growing movement for education in family life and parenthood. Its membership now includes 35 organizations and more than 500 individual workers." It is financed partly by large foundations, partly by the contributions of its members. It issues a magazine called *Parent Education*,⁽¹⁾ a service Bulletin for Members of the Interested Professions, which publishes articles embodying critical and creative thinking about education for family life and parenthood. The Council plays an active part in the creation of new programmes, in the development of more effective methods and materials, in furthering the efforts of many different organizations, and professional groups to incorporate appropriate forms of education for family life, marriage and parenthood into their work. It encourages the

(1) The double issue of *Parent Education* for April-May, 1936 contains 95 pages on every aspect of "Marriage and Family Counselling"; an issue on "Parent Education in Rural Areas" will appear in April, 1937.

following types of educational activity. (1) Adult education classes and groups, periodical literature, radio broadcasts, and other vehicles of adult education for family life and parenthood. (2) The education of children and youth for home and family life, including marriage and parenthood, at appropriate age levels, in schools and colleges, and in the programmes of out-of-school organizations. (3) Marriage and family counseling services for younger and older adults. (4) Professional education of teachers, nurses, social workers, ministers, and other professional workers in the subject matter and methodology of education for family life and parenthood; and the training of non-professional teacher-leaders. (5) Studies and research in the objectives, subject matter, methods, outcomes, and organization of education for family life and parenthood."

In addition, members of the Council staff assist in the development of publications by Government agencies and by other national groups. Bulletin 86 of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, entitled "Parent Education," is, for instance, a result of this type of effort, which may have wide reaching effects. The Council staff has also assisted in the preparation of discussion outlines for workers in the Co-operative Extension Service in Agriculture and Home Economics, of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and State Agricultural Colleges.

The Council organizes Conferences in different towns. The last one (5th biennial conference) was held at Chicago in November, 1936, the subject studied being "Education for Family Living Today." In 1934-1935 it was called a National Conference on "Community Organization of Parent Education," which prepared a very useful review of the problem and of the agencies dealing with it.

Much has been done by the National Council of Parent Education to put education for family life and parenthood into high school and college curricula. This is becoming more and more common. At the Chicago Conference of 1936, Dr. Threlkeld, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado, and President of the Department of Superintendence of the

National Education Association, expressed himself as follows:

"I believe our schools should give more attention to the home as a social institution. The fundamental importance of family life is being stressed today by students of both personality development and social process. Yet the best efforts of the schools in this direction have resulted only in fragmentary and isolated programmes... Family life promotes the conscious communication and sharing of varied interests within the group and the free establishment of co-operative relationship with other group activities which a great philosopher has pointed out to be essential to human life. Young people should consciously recognize the ways in which family life prepares them for participation in group activity outside of the home circle. Educators should consider it their duty to develop in every high school graduate that intelligence about home-making and family life which is so sorely needed by our civilization today.

Through a programme of curriculum reconstruction which has been in operation for fifteen years in the Denver public schools, step by step the study of the home as a primary social institution has been brought into prominence. This policy is probably being duplicated in many other school systems of the country today.

In the kindergarten, emphasis is placed upon home life as a co-operative enterprise. In the first two or three grades of the elementary schools are brought out the broader functions of the family, and this leads on into a study of homes in other lands. In these grades, instead of teaching subjects such as geography and civics, there is a unified social studies programme which is centred around the home as the primary social institution. The high school programme is planned along the same lines. Teachers of chemistry, physics, biology and even of the natural sciences are stimulated to emphasize those aspects of scientific knowledge which bear upon intelligent family life. In home economics classes there are objectives, yet intimate, discussions of problems affecting both present

family relationships and future home life - problems of boy-girl relationship, points to consider before marriage, husband-wife relationship, the home care and education of young children, and the like.

For out-of-school young people and adults who wish to engage in further study, an "opportunity school" has been established. Here also courses in home-making are offered. Young people are enormously interested in these subjects, and, under the proper leadership, they participate in discussions frankly and intelligently.

With the assistance of a private agency, there are also conducted in Denver forty centres of parent education, organized around pre-school groups. A child is accepted in one of these groups only when one of its parents is also enrolled for study, and parent education is the most important aspect of the programme. No father or mother participating is able to escape parental obligations by virtue of the attendance of his child in one of these pre-school groups. No part of this programme is in any sense a substitute for home care and guidance. I am not alarmed over the fact that nursery schools are appearing upon the educational scene. Rather than relieve parents of responsibility they re-enforce the home and make parents more intelligent about their obligations to their children. When conducted according to accepted standards of nursery education, I believe that, as in the case of these Denver centres, they tend to increase parental responsibility and to improve family life. Attacking the problem on all these fronts, in the nursery school, the kindergarten and elementary grades, continuing with the secondary school and with adult schools, and reaching the young children again through parent education groups centring around nursery school,—I believe that the importance of the home as a social institution is being brought out, and that students at all ages are being helped to be more successful family members and better citizens."

At a Quaker co-educational boarding school (a senior

high school) in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, I was present in May, 1936 at a lesson of a unified social studies course on the same lines as the above. The curriculum of the course is the following :⁽¹⁾

"Division C emphasizes the study of personal, social, and political problems now confronting American citizens. They are studied in terms of practical and concrete situations in everyday experience. Social Studies (*three years*). Among the topics studied are: living together at home; connections of home life with the community; varying types of people in the average community; difference in race; economic support of community life; its politics and government; international relations. Current events, case studies, contemporary periodicals, and illustrations from history are much used."

The lesson I heard was a lively discussion on the divorce legislation of the State of Pennsylvania and the neighbouring states.

The Merrill-Palmer School,⁽²⁾ of Detroit (Michigan), is one of the oldest and most efficient centres for parent education. It began its work in February, 1920, with Edna Noble White as Director. But it was in January, 1922 that the plan of giving instruction in child development to college women students, and the maintenance of a nursery school as an observation and training centre for these students was inaugurated. The staff then numbered ten; in 1934-35 it numbered 40 (including assistants and consultants) and the personnel of the Advisory Service for College Women numbered 49. The enrolment of students in that year was 154. In 1934 a new plan of instruction was inaugurated:

"It is an attempt to give the students the benefit of the newer and more progressive educational ideas and

(1) The textbooks used are: *Our Dynamic Society*, by Elliot, Merrill, and Wright. Harper, New York. 1935. *Our Changing Social Order*, by Gavian, Gray, and Groves. Heath, Boston. 1934. The teacher alone uses Professor Ernest Groves' *Marriage*. Holt, New York. 1933.

(2) *The Merrill-Palmer School*, Report for 1933-34 and for 1934-35. 71 Ferry Avenue East, Detroit, Michigan.

methods in which the past decade or two have been so rich. It is intended to allow more fully for individual differences in interest and needs, and for the wide diversity in preparation among the students, and to give a more individual guidance. In developing the new plan, special care was taken to adapt it to the broad educational purpose of the school; that is, to give the student some understanding of human development at all ages, from infancy to adulthood, through a fuller use of the opportunities for observation and experience with the various groups of children and adults co-operating with the School. This opportunity for contact with and observation of the life process in normal children and adults, the School has come to regard as perhaps its most important contribution to the education of the young women who come from their colleges for a term or a semester of study. The new plan is based upon a system of small study and discussion groups, each with an enrolment of from six to twelve students, which meet with staff leaders.

After a year and a quarter of the new plan, it appeared that despite certain difficulties, some probably inseparable from the problems inherent in the diverse backgrounds of the students and the difficulty of introducing many of them in a brief time to a method and a field entirely new to them, the plan had promoted livelier interest, improved attitudes, and fresh enthusiasm, and had placed the responsibility for learning primarily upon the student."

A great deal of research work is done in the Merrill-Palmer School.

At the State University of Iowa⁽¹⁾ there is an interesting programme of parent education.

"Following the establishment of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station in 1917, it was recognized that the part of its programme which included dissemination of

(1) *Parent Education at the State University of Iowa*. Bulletin, February 6, 1932 and June 15, 1935.

knowledge might be greatly supplemented by a service which would make available to parents the best current thought and scientific data regarding child development. The organization of child study groups seemed to offer an excellent medium for this form of service. It was apparent also that in such a programme professional workers concerned with child study might be directed in their study and investigation by the needs of the parents in those groups. Accordingly, in 1934, Dr. Bird T. Baldwin, late director of the Station, outlined definite plans and methods of procedure for the organization of child study groups in the state. The purpose as stated by Dr. Baldwin was "To give to parents dependable counsel so that every child may develop as far as his abilities permit." The plan as outlined was to bring together mothers of pre-school children in groups of fifteen or twenty under the direction of a trained person. Lesson plans and outlines were to be prepared and regular assignments made. Reading materials in book and pamphlet form were to be provided in child study libraries sent out from the University. The study courses were to run from two to three years, with as frequent meetings as were practicable; the study-discussion method of conducting classes was to be followed. A division of child study and parent education was created under the joint auspices of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station and the Extension Division of the University to carry out this work. During the fifth year of the division (1924-1925) nineteen study groups were organized in various parts of the state. A three weeks' course in child study was given during the summer for the training of special students and parents. The success of the course justified its expansion, in 1926, into a six weeks' course. An academic course for graduate students dealing specifically with the problems of childhood as they concern parents was given for the first time "during the regular University session 1925-1926."

Two field laboratories were established in 1925, at Des Moines and Council Bluffs.

"Over a period of seven years the work of the division has further expanded to include: (1) extended service in advising parents in regard to reading material; (2) the maintaining and circulating of child study libraries; (3) radio programmes; (4) exhibits in child study and parent education; (5) an annual child development and parent education conference; (6) training of local leaders; (7) additional academic courses in child study and parent education; (8) research in child study and parent education; (9) co-operation with state and national agencies, such as the National Council of Parent Education, the American Association of University Women, the State and National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, and others. The programme may be conveniently divided into extension work in the state, academic courses, and research."

The University of Washington,⁽¹⁾ at Seattle, has a School of Home Economics which includes:

"A course in Child Care in which all phases are discussed; application is made from the prerequisite courses of psychology, nutrition, and eugenics. The laboratory work in this course is a Child Nutrition Clinic which is attended by fifteen different mothers each week. A pediatrician in charge gives a physical examination and nutritional advice, and the students undress, weigh, measure, and take the history as well as observe the child in his reactions during the hour he is here. Each student has one mother and child in her charge. This permits studying of the parent-child relationship, the adjustment the child makes to new surroundings, and noting his food needs. Mothers are given advice and such aids as they require. In addition, a course on budgeting which relates expenditures to family needs and a course in

(1) From a letter of Dr. Jennie I. Rowntree, Professor of Home Economics, dated December 4, 1936.

family relationships are taken by all of our students. Both of these courses further parental philosophies rather than mere analysis of money or time expenditure for its own sake. Every course in the department serves to accent the home and the philosophy which builds stable homes; pleasure in joint family activities, simple hospitality, choice of appropriate furnishings and clothing for happiness and efficiency."

Vassar College,⁽¹⁾ at Poughkeepsie (N.Y.), holds a vacation school for college graduates and seniors, the 12th session of which (July 1 to August 12, 1937) is planned to give people:

"Better understanding of themselves and of human relations; greater skill in equipping their children for useful and satisfying lives; increased efficiency in the control of their environment; quickened understanding of the changing world about them.

The Institute offers lectures, discussions, conferences on mental and physical health, child development, house, clothes, food, family and community relationship. A laboratory for group living, in its campus life. Mornings are devoted to classes, afternoons to recreation and rest, evenings to discussion and entertainment."

The vacation school enrolls girls soon to be married, people preparing for group work, mothers, fathers and their children (from 2 to 8 years old). The children's school, a progressive one run on a 24-hour programme, provides the services of experienced teachers, a pediatricist, nurse, psychologist and dietitian. Children are only enrolled if at least one parent attends. Parents may have conferences with the faculty on their own plans and problems.

The Vassar Institute of 1937 plans two of its courses for workers in parent education and other community projects: (1) The Family and a Changing Society (including "the family as a social unit" and "family adjustment.") (2) Community Leadership, a Laboratory Course.

(1) *Vassar College Summer Institute of Euthenics Programme.*

The University of Cincinnati⁽¹⁾, through a fund provided by the Parent Education Council for Child Development (formerly called the Mothers' Training Centre Association), has been able to establish at the University.

"a model nursery group in which parents and students may observe the play, games, materials, and occupations suited to the pre-school period, as well as the methods employed in setting up desirable habits. Exhibits of books and toys for young children and books on topics of particular interest to parents are held by this department."

The Division of Child Care and Training⁽²⁾ gives very full instruction, covering four years.

"The programme offers training for position in the following fields; research in child development, director and assistant director of day nurseries or nursery groups, instructors of child care and training in colleges and high schools, health work with young children. It is of special value to students who are interested in the training of children at home.

Electives are chosen with a view to giving thorough training in the field in which the student wishes to specialize. Students who plan to enter the field of health work choose their electives in sociology and in the School of Nursing and Health. Students who wish to become directors and assistants in nursery groups and day nurseries and instructors of child care and training in high schools, colleges, and universities choose a portion of their electives in the Teachers College, particularly in kindergarten education. Students who wish to do research in the field of child development choose their electives in the Department of Psychology. Special work is provided for

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- (1) *University of Cincinnati Record*, Jan., 1936, 26 p.—*A Graphic History of the Mothers' Training Center Association 1926-1935*, Roneographed and illustrated.
 - (2) The Professor of Child Care and Training is Dr. Ada Hart Arlitt. She is the author of a first-rate book, published by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, *Our Homes*, a symposium intended to be a "a guide to a richer life together."

students who wish to major in parent education."

The University of Minnesota,⁽¹⁾ at Minneapolis, has a flourishing Institute of Child Welfare that carries out a very fine programme of parent education.

"The Institute, organized in 1925 under a special grant of the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial of New York City and in recent years supported partly by a grant from the state legislature, is a separate division of the University co-operating with divisions carrying on related work. Among those co-operating in the research programme are the departments of Anatomy, Education, Home Economics, Pediatrics, Psychology, Nervous and Mental Diseases, Public Health Nursing, Speech, and Sociology. In its instructional programme the Institute co-operates with the College of Education, the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts, the General College, the Graduate School, and the College of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics. In its programme of parent education, the Institute co-operates with the General Extension Division of the University and with the Agriculture Extension Division and Home Demonstration Service.

The research and service programme of the Institute reaches out into the community, touching almost every part of the State. The public schools of Minneapolis, St. Paul, and other cities have co-operated in research studies. At various times important investigations have been carried on in co-operation with the State Board of Control, neighbourhood houses, clinics, hospitals, sanitarium, and other institutions which serve children. Of particular importance for its success in research has been the assistance of large numbers of parents who allowed their children to serve as subjects for special studies that could not have been carried on in any other way.

The services of the Institute have been made avail-

(1) *Institute of Child Welfare. Parent Education.* Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, No. 45, Sept. 18, 1935. 16 p. Illus.—*The Institute and Its Activities 1925-36.* Leaflet No. 1

able to the parents of the state through such organizations and agencies as the Minnesota Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Association of University Women, the Federated Women's Clubs, the State Fair Association, radio stations, newspapers, and many churches and community agencies. The wide influence of the Institute is shown by the fact that organized parent education projects have been carried on in fifty of the eighty-seven counties of the state and that work of some kind has been done to assist parents in almost all other counties."

The University of Toronto,¹¹ in Canada, established in 1925 the St. George's School for Child Study, which has Dr. William Blatz for its director.

"The purpose of the School is to foster teaching and research relating to the development and training of young children. This objective takes into account not merely the child, but also the whole range of persons and environmental influences which relate to him. With the child as a centre these relationships are followed out as a continuous process of growth and learning. The emphasis is placed by the School upon normal children and homes with a view to discovering and developing those factors which tend to promote physical and mental health and a satisfactory social adjustment in children.

Child study as thus conceived has a two-fold aim: the increase of factual knowledge and the evaluation of regulative principles actually applied with children. In order to further these aims it is accepted that the methods to be followed should be experimental in outlook and educative in procedure. Moreover, it is the hope of the University in establishing this School under co-operative management that fresh light may be thrown upon the problems of child development through the closer association of several scientific points of view.

(1) The University of Toronto. *Calendar of St. George's School for Child Study 1936-1937*.—*Outlines for Parent Education Groups*. Pre-School Learning.

In addition to the contact with children who are in attendance or are later to be enrolled in the School, the staff maintains contact through its parent groups, consultation work and home visits, with a much wider circle of families. A basis of co-operation has also been established in the community with social, educational and health organizations, public and private, whose activities touch the field of child training. Through such contacts the courses of instruction and investigations by the School are kept closely related to the realities of practical situation.

Programme of Instruction. The following four types of instruction are offered: (A) Graduate instruction of Child Study with research required: (B) Training of professional workers as leaders in Parent Education. (C) Study Courses for Parents. (D) Training of Children enrolled in the School.

From time to time the School also offers a two weeks' intensive course for a limited number of experienced persons (not fewer than fifteen or over twenty-five). These courses are designed for nurses, teachers, social workers or others who are already conducting parent groups, and who desire to be informed concerning the principles and literature of Child Study. Such a course is only given when the need is indicated." Special courses are held for parents.

"Three types of study courses are offered for parents and any others interested in child training. The first is under the auspices of the Extension Department of the University. The courses of twenty lectures each are available, namely, Course I, "The Pre-School Child" and Course II, "The Child in School."

The second type of Course is conducted in the St. George's School and consists of ten meetings for reading, study and discussion with opportunities for personal consultation to be arranged for individual members. These are—Course III, an Introductory Course for the Parents of Older Children and Course IV, Family Relations.

The parents of children attending the nursery school are required to attend special courses designed to acquaint them with the principles and practice of the School. These are listed as Courses V and VI."

Finally, here is some information on two College courses dealing specifically with education for marriage and family responsibilities.

"The course entitled Marriage," says Professor Ernest Groves,⁽¹⁾ Research Professor in Sociology at the University of North Carolina.

"has been offered at the University of North Carolina during the last eleven years. It appears to have been the earliest and is now, therefore, the oldest attempt to prepare students on the college level to meet successfully the problems of marriage experience by means of specific credit-giving instruction.

The course came about through the conviction of a group of seniors that it was part of the obligation of the state university in preparing its students for life to give information through a regular course that would help them meet their marriage and family responsibilities. A committee went to the President, Harry W. Chase, now Chancellor of New York University, requesting that a course in marriage be offered. President Chase was most sympathetic with their viewpoint, and the kind of course they wished was added to the curriculum. They were not interested in a theoretical or sociological discussion of the institution of marriage but wanted definite information concerning the major problems of marriage. From the beginning the instruction was directed toward satisfying this practical need of the students.

The course is an elective one; open to seniors and also to juniors who are entering law or medicine. A

(1) *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, Nov., 1936, p. 497. A longer, more descriptive article by Professor Groves, entitled "Education for Marriage," appeared in the *Parents Magazine*, July, 1936

large proportion of those preparing for the latter professions enter the course each year. It has always been one of the largest on the campus. At first it was restricted to the male students but is now open to both men and women, who take it in separate classes. The origin of the course gave it from the beginning a practical, serious purpose, and therefore it has never been regarded lightly or morbidly by the student body.

It is interesting to notice how firmly the idea of college instruction for marriage has established itself in the State of North Carolina. Guilford College, Duke University, Black Mountain College, Western Teachers College, and Eastern Teachers College are some of the institutions of higher learning in the State that are offering credit or non-credit instruction in preparation for marriage."

Syracuse University, at Syracuse,⁽¹⁾ N. Y., Department of Sociology, offers a course on Marriage.

"The second semester of last year for the first time was composed of a series of lectures given without credit to such seniors as elected to enroll for the course. No prerequisites were set up for the course.

The programme was arranged by a committee appointed by the Dean of Liberal Arts and consisting of members of various departments of the university. The departments represented included psychology, medicine, sociology, biology, home economics and religion. Included were seven lectures upon topics selected by the committee and given by faculty members in the various fields. Topics included: The Range and Variety of Marriage Customs; Health Factors in Marriage; Emotional Aspects of Courtship; Emotional Aspects of Marriage; The Art of Homemaking; Religious Aspects of Marriage; Economic Factors in Marriage.

Opportunities for conference with various staff

(1) From a letter of Dr. Lois M. Jack, of the Department of Sociology, dated Jan. 14, 1937.

members—especially a physician and a psychiatrist who participated in the conduct of the course—were given. Questions were submitted to the committee at an early meeting of the students and given to the speaker in whose field they logically fell for their consideration. A number of changes are contemplated before the course is offered again in the second semester of the current year. These, however, are in too embryonic a state to be reported."

It must be admitted that North America—and particularly the United States—is making a determined and systematic effort to give dignity and security to the home.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS SECTION

*Chairman: Miss Ada Emily Phillips, Avery Hill
Training College, Eltham, London, England.*

*Secretary: Dr. Henry Lester Smith, Dean, School of
Education, University of Indiana, Bloomington, In-
diana, U. S. A.*

*Co-operating Member: Mr. Otohiko Hasegawa, Prin-
cipal, Aoyama Normal School, Tokyo, Japan.*

Place of Meeting: Room No. 36.

First Session *Tuesday, 3rd August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)*

Second Session *Wednesday, 4th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)*

First Session

Opening Address of the Chairman

"In many countries important changes in the methods of training teachers are being considered or have actually been carried out. Two of the chief deciding factors are unemployment of teachers and a desire to improve and extend educational opportunities for the older children. The problem of unemployment among teachers is very serious in many European countries and its reaction on the supply of

Preparation of Teachers Section



Mr. Otohiko Hasegawa
Co operating Member



Dr. C. Rodriguez
(See P 111)



Delegates at the Conference of Preparation of Teachers

teachers is likely to create difficulties. In England many of our abler secondary school pupils and university graduates will not contemplate entering the teaching profession. The difficulty of absorbing fully-qualified teachers is in many countries the chief factor influencing administrative changes. In Austria, for example, all recruiting to the teaching profession has been suspended and the number of colleges reduced. Similar procedure is to be noted elsewhere. Many valuable changes, however, may be traced to the same origin. In several European countries training courses are being lengthened with a view to strengthening the academic work of the teachers' course without weakening professional studies. In Czechoslovakia, school life is to be lengthened by one year and the old curriculum of the training colleges that has remained unchanged since 1869 is to be reshaped. Change in one direction or another and for one motive or another is being brought about in most countries. The time, therefore, seems opportune for experiments in teacher training schemes. In the sphere of education all over the world today change is the most prominent feature. Such change may be valuable in offering advantages of a permanent character, or it may be ill-conceived or hastily conceived and likely to delay educational advance. Obviously national finance must play a most important, perhaps the most important, part. The future interests of national education and international relationships can be shown in no better way than by well-ordered experiments carried out with the sympathetic help of the government concerned. Teachers, as well as administrators, must have full opportunity to co-operate in such experiments, for changes of fundamental importance are taking place, or likely to take place, in school methods. Mass teaching is giving place to group and individual work, formal teaching to planned investigation by the pupil helped by books and material of all kinds. The school curriculum is fuller and more varied and flexible.

The introduction of administrative changes without any period of experimentation is becoming a subject of great concern to organized groups of teachers. One such change

in some European countries is likely to intensify differences in status as between different types of teachers. Special facilities are being planned for some candidates for the teaching profession but not for all. Selected candidates are to have more advanced work in their own school or to be transferred to special institutions for the last years of their school life. These candidates may fairly easily secure entrance to a university; others will have practically no chance to do so. The development of more advanced school courses may be good in itself, but it will be disastrous if it is carried out on so restrictive a basis that any considerable number of intending teachers is forced, by legislation or custom, to accept a shorter period of cultural education than the more favoured few. A false assumption is often made that better provision should be available only for those who will ultimately teach older children. Thus may be created a mentality prejudicial to the teacher of younger children and in some countries to women teachers. Such a position is more than ridiculous; it is dangerous, for it creates dissatisfaction and unrest. The teaching profession under such conditions will always be inferior in public estimation and prestige to the other learned professions. Within reasonable limits similar opportunities must be provided for all intending teachers.

Certain educational developments that have an important bearing on the preparation of teachers are common to many countries at the present time. One of the most striking is the effort being made to secure for all pupils as good a broad general education as possible before any specialized or vocational training is attempted. General culture is coming to be regarded as more valuable than success in scholastic or technical attainment for school children. Technological changes everywhere are so rapid that a choice of vocation is becoming largely haphazard and dependent on local conditions. The pupil is best prepared by that kind of general education before the age of 15 or 16 that will develop versatility, which with additional training later, as needed, can be directed into new channels. Such developments call

for a new outlook in the preparation of the teacher. His own education becomes a matter of paramount importance not only at the university stage but throughout his school life. Questions of finance will inevitably affect the particular line of improvement adopted in different countries. In some, improvement is attempted at the school stage; in others, at a later stage by the lengthening and reshaping of the academic work that is associated with professional training. Bolivia, for example, has planned for its two colleges a new 5-year course, 2 years to be given to a broad education devoted to general culture prior to a 3-year course of professional training. The Union of Soviet Governments faced with the tremendous task of providing teachers for 26 million children is rapidly expanding pedagogical institutions. Some as yet can only offer a 2-year course, but many new colleges are designed for candidates who have completed a full 7-year course in a secondary school and these include further general education, while a rapidly increasing number of institutions offer a 4-year course. A period of bold experiment in England is very desirable. Administrators and teachers through their professional organization need to come to a clear understanding as to the fundamental qualifications of a teacher, academic and professional, irrespective of the type of teaching service which the candidate may desire, or for which he may be best suited. Broadly speaking, we are agreed that a full secondary school course of broad cultural education is the foundation, that a university course of at least 3 years, not too highly specialized, should be available, and that more time and attention should be devoted to professional training. The linking of these 3 stages, permitting as much variation as possible, is a problem of live interest at the moment. We realize too that the intending teacher must in some way be given the opportunity for contact with children while he himself is pursuing his own academic studies and most certainly before he reaches the age of 21 or 22 years."

The Preparation of Teachers: the Need for Well-Ordered Experiments

Dr. Kwan'ichi Tanaka

*Professor, Tokyo University of Literature
and Science, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 133)

Some Experiments in Teacher Training in the United States

Dr. Ruth E. McMurry

*Professor, Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York, U. S. A.*

(Read by Dr. Benjamin R. Andrews)

In the United States there is a keen interest in the education of teachers together with an increasing awareness, particularly on the part of responsible leaders of education, that steps must be taken to clarify the confusion now existing in teacher education.

It is not within the scope of this paper to discuss in detail the causes of this confusion. During the rapid growth of the American educational system a bewildering variety of ways of preparing teachers for all educational levels has developed. Recent social, political and economic changes have intensified many of the problems growing out of this situation.

The comprehensive *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* published within the last few years has done much to clarify practices in the United States. The *National Survey* is supplemented by the *Yearbook* of the National Society of College Teachers of Education of 1935, in which a body of principles by which practice may be guided is developed around four major issues:

1. Selective admission and selective promotion.
2. Curriculum content and organization.
3. Directed teaching.
4. Teacher supply and demand.

Other publications dealing with problems of teacher education from many and often opposing points of view are appearing in great numbers. Although there is no common

agreement as to how teachers should be educated, there is a growing recognition of the importance of the teacher in the educational process and an insistent demand for better teachers. This point of view comes out clearly in the following statement from the conclusions and recommendations of the Commission on Social Studies of the American Historical Association:

"There is no device of instruction that can raise the quality of the educative process above the purpose, the knowledge, the understanding, the vision of the teacher who employs it."

The interest in teacher education is further indicated by the many experiments now being carried on in public and private institutions, normal schools, teacher training colleges, and departments and schools of education of colleges and universities. Even some of the progressive elementary and secondary schools which have become dissatisfied with the kind of teachers turned out by regular teacher training institutions, are offering an internship year which includes practical teaching experience and an educational seminar to promising young people in an effort to catch up the gap between the more conservative teacher training programmes and the progressive schools.

There is too little co-ordination of these experiments, however, and many of them are not seen in their relationship to the larger problems of education in the United States. For this reason a number of leading educators are proposing a further survey of teacher education which will go more deeply into the study of the philosophic bases for a democratic education in the United States, following which recommendations will be made for a programme of teacher education which will include continuous experimentation and examination of results.

Of the many experiments now going on in the United States, the speaker has been asked to discuss one which has certain very interesting aspects. This is a small experimental teachers college called "New College" which is a part of Teachers College, Columbia University, and which

serves Teachers College as a demonstration school on a college level. New College is experimenting with a programme for training superior elementary and secondary teachers. This programme, according to the report given in the *Teachers College Record* of October, 1936, includes "A careful selection of candidates, a curriculum based upon persistent problems, seminars in which these problems are analyzed and discussed, service courses which should develop the knowledge and skills necessary for the solution of these problems, specialization based on a broad base of general culture, foreign study, community living, contact with industry, functional standards, guidance based upon a cumulative record system and a comprehensive examination plan culminating in an internship."

In this brief report it is possible to mention in some detail only a few of the more outstanding features of this plan. As it is the purpose of New College to train superior teachers, the problem of selection of candidates is one upon which serious attention is focused. This is particularly true in a school where independence and resourcefulness are qualities that are highly stressed, and where, if the student is to succeed, he must be sensitive to opportunities for his own growth, use these opportunities to best advantage in the development of effective behaviour patterns, and have a broad understanding of what his own conduct means to himself and to others. The authorities have agreed that he should have shown good scholastic ability and high intelligence in his previous work, and that he should have good health. There are other qualities that are most important for a future teacher, such as a "good teaching personality" and "potentiality for social service." But some of these qualities cannot be measured at all adequately, particularly at the time of entrance to the College, in spite of the extensive information gathered about each prospective student, including records of his school life, estimates of former teachers, and finally personal interviews with several members of the New College staff.

One of the most interesting developments in New Col

lege is the cumulative record which follows the student throughout the course of his studies, and which, in the form of comprehensive statements instead of grades, gives a clear picture not only in his scholastic work but in the whole round of his personal activities. This runs parallel with the Long-View Plan for individual guidance which is made and remade through the course of his period of study by the student and his advisers in the light of his record as it is evaluated according to the standards set up for the College.

There is no fixed programme of study at New College. It is usually considered advisable for most students to begin their course with a few months spent at the New College Community, a farm community in North Carolina. There, living close to nature, the young students make their first adjustments to other students and to staff members by working and playing together in that kind of community living which is so important a part of the programme of New College.

Then follows a period of two or three years of residence study in New York at New College. The student begins his study in the seminars, the work of which is centred about persistent life problems such as those connected with making a living, keeping well or co-operating with others.

In order to lay the foundations for a broad, liberal culture the work of the seminars is supplemented by courses in the four closely related areas: human relationships, the natural sciences, the arts, and philosophy.

The fact that the young student is to become a teacher is not forgotten, and he begins his contacts with children and with adults which bring him opportunities for observation of educational activities and sometimes give him teaching experiences.

Then comes a period of foreign study, usually from eight to ten months in length, during which the student has an opportunity for a serious study of another civilization. It is thought that the student can understand his own country better through his understanding of another civilization.

After the study abroad comes another period of resident study in which the professional side of the training is stressed. There is a study of philosophies and practices in education in Europe and America. Instructional materials are prepared for use. Student teaching begins.

Finally, there is a period of independent study of six months or a year which should give the student an opportunity for a kind of overview of education and of the work of the teacher. He has an opportunity to make up any deficiencies which are discovered in his background. He also begins work on a professional problem which is related to his internship.

When his internship problem is completed there is a comprehensive oral examination in which the student defends it. The general culture and the professional preparation of the student are also tested in this examination.

In the last part of his training the student has his internship period, usually a year in length, in which, as a regular member of a school staff, he has a chance to test his academic, professional, and personal qualifications. His work is not completed at New College until he can show by actual performance that he is a superior teacher.

As can be seen, the course at New College is a long and expensive one. To the student who is able and willing to take advantage of them, it offers unusual opportunities for a broad general culture, a serious study of a special field, and a fine professional training. Careful individual guidance is given in order to make possible the development of fine personal qualities. The attempt to make the ordinary problems of life a part of the curriculum of New College has helped many students to adjust their personal problems and to see these problems in their wider relationships. In the longer programme, time is given for community study, and New York as a community is a rich source of information and stimulating experiences for the students.

New College was founded in 1932. At the end of the first four years it attempted to evaluate its work and to plan its next steps. The results of the investigation were

published in the *Teachers College Record* from which I have already quoted. The suggestions made for the next four years indicated no desire to change the programme but to deepen and strengthen it along the following lines: "(1) sharpening the admission techniques, particularly with reference to personal qualifications, (2) evaluating student achievement more definitely with reference to standards, (3) improving instruction, and (4) expanding student teaching facilities in communities already under way and beginning other communities."

New College has been in existence too short a time for anyone to really test the effectiveness of its work. But both in the philosophy underlying its programme and in its methods of putting theory into practice, there is much that should be very stimulating to those who are thinking about problems of teacher education.

Preparation of Teachers in Venezuela

Dr. C. Rodriguez

Consul-General of Venezuela, Tokyo, Japan

It is my privilege to be able today to address this assembly on behalf of the Department of Education of the Venezuelan Government to say a few words about the work already done in Venezuela for the preparation of teachers, and to point out some of the most urgent problems confronting the Department of National Education in regard to such need.

Aside from the budget problem, there is no greater difficulty in Venezuela than that of providing our schools with well-prepared, conscientious, efficient teachers. Should the Department be able, as I know it is, to create overnight a considerable number of new schools in order to intensify our fight against illiteracy, the great majority of them would have to dispense with the services of teachers worth that name. More than that, if, at a given time, we were to take a thorough inspection of the present teacher population in our schools, we would discover that a large percentage of teachers of many years standing lack the qualifications that make for the welfare of education in general.

It is indeed not so easy a task to solve this problem. Before getting rid of it, and in order to have in the very near future sufficient number of teachers, the Department of National Education in Venezuela must attend by necessity to the following vital issues:

1. Maintenance of teachers in their jobs free from any fear of losing them by unwarranted or illegal competition.
2. Establishment of a careful grading system to insure just promotions.
3. Establishment of school savings banks, school teachers' co-operative societies and similar institutions for the economic help of teachers.

along lines adapted to Venezuela's peculiar needs and requirements and by means of permanent training courses for the benefit of teacherdom. In the field of secondary education it was its duty to see to the organization and regulation of an institute for the formation of teachers for secondary education, soon to be established in Caracas, the capital of our country. The second step was the creation of the institute just referred to under the name of National Pedagogic Institute, which has been in active work since early 1936 and giving post-graduate courses in education for the benefit of teachers already in the profession, technical inspectors, heads of schools or colleges, etc., as well as courses for the preparation of students for a teaching career.

During the year of 1936 four courses were opened by the Institute. (1) One for advanced students to fill the place of teachers for the large number of schools newly created by the Department of Education. After a fall term of four months, 38% of those who attended the examinations were able to pass the final tests. They are now in the field working as well prepared instructors, but certainly in need of post-graduate instruction. (2) First Course for the Perfecting of Teachers. It was given during the summer vacation from July to early October and was followed by a great number of teachers hailing from schools spread all over the Venezuelan territory who came post-haste to our capital city full of enthusiasm and zest for the chance given them. Those registered were 19 technical inspectors, 208 trained teachers and heads of schools and 247 teachers without professional training. (3) Second Course for the Perfecting of Teachers Working along the same lines as the First Course, it was attended by 612 pupils classified as follows: "A" course, 39 heads or directors of schools; "B" course, 337 normal teachers divided into two groups; "C" course, 206 teachers without professional training; (4) Aptitude Course for Kindergartens for the preparation of women teachers for pre-school education. It was followed by 59 applicants, all of whom passed the final examination tests. With this last course, we have in Venezuela for the first time a scientifically

prepared personnel for the task of pre-school education and kindergartens.

This National Pedagogic Institute is indeed going to produce a veritable educational revolution in Venezuela. With its valuable help we are availing ourselves of the most up-to-date improvements of the educational science in order to inject 'new blood and a new spirit into the life of National Education, especially in the preparation of teachers, numerous foreign educational experts having been brought to my country to help us in our ambitious educational enterprise.

The plan of work is divided into three years as follows:

"A"—a general course, compulsory for each and every student, and reading the following matters: special philosophies and general philosophy; general pedagogics and methodology; educational psychology; methodological observation and teaching practice. "B"—a general course in languages, with principles of linguistics, literature in general, Latin and Greek roots. And "C"—special courses comprising the whole of courses "A" and "B"—and then Spanish, French, English, history and geography, biology and chemistry, mathematics and physics, drawing, music, manual arts, and physical culture. The working schedule is 18 hours a week for the first year, 14 for the second year, and 10 hours a week for the third year. One whole afternoon is to be devoted every week to practical work, and laboratory, library and seminar work according to the needs of the several courses. Supplementary courses are to be given in drawing for didactic purposes; in acquainted with the handling of motion picture projectors and the useful employment of them in the classroom; and in the use, preparation and repairing of the teaching equipment according to the speciality followed. Teaching practice is to be acquired by attending the Lyceum of Application attached to the Institute for a full period of two didactic cycles in the third year.

A few more things, I guess, I could say about the preparation of teachers in Venezuela but the allotted time does not permit me to do so. I wish to be permitted, however, to express my profound regret for the fact that, owing to

several reasons, the Department of Education in Venezuela has not been able to send a large delegation of eminent teachers and educationalists such as we have in our country. Certainly I have been a teacher in Venezuela, and again I have been a teacher in Japan, but what a difference would it have made if, instead of listening to my poor words and ill-arranged thoughts, you were to hear today the eloquence of a Venezuelan teacher like Tulio Febres Cordero, President Emeritus of the University of the Andes, or Francisco A. Riquez, former President of our Central University and with half a century of teaching to his credit, or J.M. Nunez Ponte, who taught practically every man of importance in Venezuela, whether in arts, science, industry or politics. Or, if we talk of those who live no more, you ought to have heard the words of one Jose Jesus Arocha, Luis Razetti, or Agustin Aveledo—all possessed with an apostolic zest and fervour for the cause of education which we are able fully to appreciate now. These scholars have left a perpetual memory in the annals of Venezuelan education. As things stand, however, I think I have fulfilled my duty as honestly and sincerely as possible.

Teacher Training in Canada

Dr. J. G. Althouse

Dean, Ontario College of Education,

University of Toronto, Canada

(Read by Mr. H. D. Southam)

It gives me great pleasure indeed to read this paper prepared by Dr. Althouse, Dean of the College of Education in Toronto, Ontario, who is unfortunately unable to be at the Conference and has asked me to read the paper for him.

In approaching any study of Canadian education it is well to remember that with very few exceptions the schools and teachers of the nation are controlled by the provinces and not by the Dominion, but the training and preparation of teachers in each province are the concern of the Provincial Department of Education and no province accords full recognition to teachers' certificates granted by other provinces. In spite of this fact similarity and not diversity is characteristic of the teacher training systems of our nine provinces. In no case are similarities more marked in the sweeping changes which are today affecting our attitude towards our preparation of teachers for their tasks. Teachers for elementary schools are trained in provincially controlled normal schools. In most of the provinces there are also faculties or schools of education in connection with the universities. These train secondary school teachers, provide courses in education for graduate students and participate in the training of those university graduates who seek to enter elementary education with teaching or inspecting as their goal.

Only one province still keeps university graduates from teaching secondary school without professional training. There is a definite trend to postpone teachers' professional training until the required academic preparation is complete, although Prince Edward Island and Quebec still permit two types of

preparation to be carried on simultaneously. There is an equally strong tendency to make professional training courses short and eccentric. One year has become the standard length of these courses in spite of the reiterated contention of education that this period is too brief. Perhaps the success of the Ontario country model school has had much to do with establishing our policy of short intensive courses. For thirty years, 1877 to 1907, these institutions took quite immature young people with only two years of high school education and in fourteen weeks equipped them to teach with a great deal of success in the rural and village schools of the country. Certain it is that after a few years of experimentation with a second year of normal school training Ontario has declared in favour of a one-year course supplemented by a summer session and other provinces have not deviated from this decision.

The trend toward higher entrance requirements is unmistakable. Character, age and citizenship have long been factors in the admission of students to training schools. Residence within the province is appearing to supplement them. Health, too, has been a traditional consideration. In recent years normal schools and faculties of education are setting up their own Boards of Medical Examiners to test the physical fitness of the applicants for admission. Academic prerequisite mounts ever higher. Few normal schools accept students who have completed less than eleven grades of elementary and secondary schools. British Columbia requires twelve grades and Ontario thirteen.

The opportunity to stiffen the academic requirement is one of the results of the financial depression. In the period of depression, teaching posts even at the low salaries available offered the greatest securities not found in many other professions or comparable occupations. So great a structure of qualified teachers was built up in every province that some of the normal schools were closed and all of them definitely discouraged candidates with lower grades of certificates. In four provinces, no certificates lower than first class are now granted. Another indication of the more jealous guarding of

entries of the teaching profession is found in the growth of the practice of permitting training schools to award only interim certificates. These may be made permanent by successful experience alone as in Saskatchewan or by successful experience combined with a summer session in education as in British Columbia or by a combination of successful experience, professional summer schools and further academic work as in Ontario. Alberta substitutes assigned reading research work for the summer session and Manitoba includes academic study, original research and professional summer sessions in its requirements for permanent certificates. Only three provinces continue to grant permanent certificates on the completion of the training school courses--Nova Scotia in the case of superior first, granted only to a university graduate; Quebec in the case of all certificates granted under the authority of the Roman Catholic Committee, the Council of Public Instruction; and New Brunswick. The more rigorous shifting of student teachers on the basis of health and academic preparation has resulted in greatly reduced enrolment in our training schools. But interested observers are far from satisfied and it has succeeded in admitting only the best teaching prospects and in rejecting only the unfit.

Extensive investigations into the prognostic value of available data has been made notably by Dr. Peter Standeford in his "Research System in the Ontario Clause of Education", by Professor Black of British Columbia University and by Misses D.J. Seabright and A.R.B. Rockhart of MacDonald College of McGill University. These studies emphasize the unreliability of prognosis based upon achievements in academic and special studies and reiterates the special needs of receptive aptitude tests particularly of those pressed with a temperamental sickness. They confirm the general belief that successful experience could be an important requirement for the granting of any certificate balanced for the lifetime of the holding. The most significant trends in teacher training in Canada do not appear in many of the available statistical summaries. Among these is the trend in such teaching. Traditionally, Canadian training schools have or-

ganized practical parts of their courses on the single or isolated lesson units. Students seem to like their lessons designed to increase a particular point in theory, and in turn teachers attempt to teach similar specialized lessons. There was little opportunity of understanding the whole classroom situation, little chance of finding the teacher's task as a mitigated whole, little hope of discovering that the pupil's care in the learning process is more important than the teaching. These requisites have long been recognized, but it is only within the last two or three years that the normal schools and faculties of education have really attempted to solve this problem. The first step was to increase the time in practical work. Recently an analysis of the time table of the reputedly progressive normal schools showed that only about fifteen per cent of the students' time was spent in the classrooms of the practice schools. Today forty per cent of the students' time would not be regarded as an accepted proportion for this type of work. A more important step was the provision of continuous tasks whereby the student is released from lectures and other training school exercises for a practical period. In order to train his whole attention to the practical work in the classrooms these periods of continuous participation in the work of the practical school training are from six to seven weeks and are spent in observing and in assisting in school routine and in teaching classes. It must be confessed that our training school staffs have been slow to learn that the time spent by the student teachers in contact with the classroom situation is not enough. We have been reluctant to consider this because of other worries and other anxieties. We have attempted to drag him back to the training schools for various reasons, to demand part of his time and attention to efforts not fitly relevant to the practical experiences he has been gaining. Above all, we persist in reminding him that his achievements in the practical situation is being evaluated and that his success or failure in his course largely depends upon this evaluation. We are wise enough to be surprised and pained when we discover that he is more anxious to make a favourable impression upon his pretty teacher who is also an evaluator of his

efforts than he is to discover his own aptitude, his powers and his limitations.

We have still to learn that frankness and naturalness are seldom incompatible with the search for mark. We have still to divide some methods of reducing to its proper place the testing aspects of continuous practice. These problems are raised by continuous practice. Chief among these are the provision of rural practice and the supervision of practices in schools remote from training centres. The typical Canadian elementary school is a one-room ungraded rural school in which the teacher is responsible for instruction in seven or eight elementary grades and often in one or two secondary grades as well. Most of the graduates of our normal schools secure their first post in schools of this sort. A considerable number of these graduates, particularly in the older provinces, come from urban countries and have had no experience as pupils in rural schools. Almost all of Canada's normal schools are situated in larger towns and cities. The most accessible opportunities for practice, therefore, is in graded urban schools. The practical experience afforded student teachers in these schools is in marked contrast to the procedure which the beginning teacher must attempt when he is appointed to a rural school. In Nova Scotia, Ontario, and the western provinces determined efforts are being made to meet these difficulties. Ontario offers liberal grants to induce rural schools to accept student teachers for practice. In Saskatchewan each normal school student is required to spend two weeks in a rural school of his own selection and similar plans are used in Alberta and Manitoba. Whenever rural classes are provided the problem of supervision occurs. Normal school staffs have not been found with any sort of supervision for practical work of students scattered over wide areas, nor are provincial revenues abundant enough to permit enlargement of these staffs. On the other hand, it is beyond doubt that the rural teacher needs supervision more urgently than does the teacher of an urban school. The rural teacher is usually young and inexperienced. She has less time to devote to the student teachers and she is remote from sources of authentic infor-

mation and of sources of advice. Nova Scotia and Ontario have contrived plans of supervision of a limited amount of rural practice. The problem is more difficult in the sparsely settled prairies.

One beneficial result of this curricula of continuous practice has been the introduction of a lecture programme in the training schools. One can easily understand how the usually heavy lecture programme of the normal schools developed. When student teachers were often immature and usually of meagre academic attainment it was almost inevitable that the teacher trainer would believe that the student if left to himself would be almost certain to do something stupid or harmful. The teacher trainer tried to tell the student in detail how to meet every emergency. Naturally enough, the student seemed to have a two-fifths idea about normal school courses. He believed that he should not be held responsible for anything which had not been told him at the lectures and he also believed that the normal schools should tell him the best way of teaching anything and everything on the normal school curriculum. As a matter of plain fact the training schools sometimes did advocate definite and almost exclusive methods, not in the belief that these methods were best for all teachers but because in practice they had turned out to be almost fool proof enough in the hands of most of the students. It is exactly at this point that you may see the most radical and the most significant training in teacher training in Canada.

Training schools are getting away from the pessimistic attitude which has long limited the usage and are adopting an attitude so optimistic as to appear daring. They are saying now something like this "The young people who come to us today are healthy, mature and well-informed. It is reasonable to suppose that they are responsible, intelligent, interested and energetic. We must familiarize them with the common routine of teaching. We must give them the general theory necessary to enable them to understand this routine. We must secure for them the opportunity to turn their own practical problem and to work out for themselves two or three of these problems. If we find a student who is unwilling or unable to

discover his own problem and to cast over the solution of such problems, we must eliminate him from the profession."

With this view, training school lectures become less formal, less bookish and less effective. They tend to become discussions, arising from the observations and experiences of the students *in the practice schools and leading to the recognition and practical solution of problems which the student has good reason to believe he will meet when he returns to those schools.* We discuss his problems with him but we encourage him to reflect more deeply, to read more widely and to talk more frankly about what he has to do in his practical work and about what he now knows and he will have to do if he becomes a school teacher.

Most of us find that the new task we are studying is not easier but harder than the old. If we spend less time for lecturing, we spend much more time in planning our courses, and in that planning we find that we cannot omit a careful study of the students themselves. School curricula are ever under revision; Canadian curricula are no exception to that rule. Broadening school courses put new demands on teacher training institutions; new subjects, new courses, and new types of schools require teachers of special training. On the other hand, Canadian training schools can never afford to project the paying of the very small schools where one teacher must undertake every subject offered in this school. For this reason Canada has not gone as far in specializing training as have some states in the United States of America. Kindergartens seldom appear in very small schools. Whenever the kindergarten or any variant of it forms part of the provincial system, the training of teachers for pre-school groups is conducted in the regular training schools, but in courses usually the State forms the regular teacher training.

Preparation to teach special subjects which are often offered in the smaller schools, subjects like music, art, physical education, manual training, household arts, and commercial subjects is provided in supplementary courses offered in summer sessions which are taken in addition to the regular teacher courses. There are also courses to train in teaching

subnormal children. Teachers of agriculture are commonly trained by the joint action of the provincial departments of agriculture and of education.

Where vocational education has become firmly established the training of teachers of practical subjects is a major problem. Ontario has made marked progress in the solution of this problem. These teachers are trained in a special technical training colleges. The students are taken from industry; fairly high academic attainment is a prerequisite and a professional course aims at the instructional skill and knowledge of educational theory. This college gives summer sessions in vocational guidance and in other special teacher training. An interesting course is that prescribed for academic teachers of experience to qualify them for principalships of vocational schools. Ontario offers another striking example of special teacher training. In the north of the province, in the east and along the western boundary are many communities in which French is the common language. The schools in these communities are expected to give to the children the command of both French and English. Until 1926 this was found to be a difficult task.

Teachers for these schools have been trained in certain provincial model schools and usually possessed the most meagre teaching qualifications. In 1926 only 14% of these teachers held certificates as high as those required in the regular schools of the province. Forty-two per cent held third class certificates limited to three years of teaching and temporary certificates valid only from year to year. Forty-four per cent held no teachers' certificates at all. In the following year the model schools were discontinued and a new normal school was established in connection with Ottawa University. After ten years under the new system of training, 80% of the teachers of these English-French schools hold certificates equal to those valid in the regular schools and no teacher is employed without a certificate. Not the least impressive feature of this record is the close co-operation of the inspectors of the English-French schools which should be a lesson to all the provinces. Training schools should not attempt to be finishing

schools. It should turn out only beginners, only promising apprentices, to transform these apprentices into genuine teachers, a master craftsman is needed to direct them in their first assay of actual service. In the secondary schools and in large graded elementary schools that master craftsman is the principal. In the thousands of ungraded one-teacher schools of rural Canada, the master craftsman must be the school inspector. Upon this official in every province falls the far too heavy burden of time and energy he must devote to the supervision of the beginning teacher.

Until the provinces appoint inspectors in adequate numbers and with proper training, the supervision of teacher training in Canada will fall short of its possibilities. It is because the trainers of teachers know that once graduated most of their students will be literally on their own, that they continue to strive for an adjournment and therefore perpetuate most of the obvious weaknesses of the training system. The present inspectors are not responsible for this situation. They are doing yeoman service but not even they can accomplish the impossible. The summer sessions to which Canadian teachers are evicted, the teachers' institutes which inspectors foster and the teachers' journals to which subscriptions are urged are poor substitutes for the kindly and close supervision of beginners that only a greatly increased inspectorial staff can make possible. Nova Scotia's experiments with visiting teachers has attracted wide attention because it is a practical effort to provide such supervision.

One word remains to be said. Canada is a vigorously democratic country; the rights of the individual are jealously guarded. In teacher training this means that no effort is spared to assure the student teacher of fair and even generous speech. Recent studies of the prognostic value of the marks and signs at one Canadian training school showed clearly that most of the serious errors made by that school in forecasting the success or failure of its graduates are caused by over-generous treatment of malnutrition. These studies should be repeated in every province to ascertain whether it is time for trainers of teachers to be as anxious to protect the rights of

the nation's schools and of the children in them as they have been to secure student teachers of fair teaching. In the respect already mentioned, training schools of Canada are critical of their own practice. Their public opinions are by no means final nor can they ever be final. On one point alone the trainers of teachers in Canada are agreed. They are certain that teachers are called upon to prepare young wives for the changing world, but to attempt this they must exhibit ingenuity, self-reliance, enthusiasm, and a knowledge of human nature never before required. These qualities cannot be imparted or developed by a training school which is dead or dull. If the schools are to be living forces in the nation's developments, the teachers must be able to give to their students some measure of the more abundant life. The source of that life must be in the training schools.

Training of Women Teachers in Japan

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(See Vol. V, P. 140)

Second Session

Teacher Training in the Philippines

Dr. Francisco Benitez

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Philippines, Manila, P. I.*

I am very grateful for this privilege of being allowed to speak first. Following the example of our President, Dr. Monroe, I also beg leave not to read my long paper. I will just summarize it orally and then submit it to the section for any use they will want to make out of it later. My topic this morning is a brief survey of "Teacher Training in the Philippines."

Now, the other day, in one of the sections, I heard one of the American delegates refer to the Philippines as a territory of the United States. I thought I would take advantage of this opportunity to say that that isn't quite so. It is not an organized territory like Hawaii, nor is it a State of the Union, but it is an autonomous commonwealth under the American sovereignty since November 16, 1935, and according to our independence law, it will be granted full independence in 1945. I thought I might make that clear just as a background so that we can get an idea of Philippine sovereignty.

Before I discuss at this meeting our system of training teachers, it seems to me that it would be a good idea to give you a sketch of our school system. Otherwise you will not know for what particular advantages or levels of the systems we are planning for different types of teachers. I feel at home on the subject. I had a teacher's course, you know. You all probably did. Well, our school system is partly copied after the American naturally, and so it is organized on a preliminary basis, that is to say, we have, let us say—(Mr. Benitez

illustrated on the blackboard)—four years of primary school. That is the foundation. On top of that we have three years of what we call the intermediate—(illustration); so that makes seven years, which we call the elementary. Four years primary, three years intermediate, and the two combined, we call elementary. On the basis of this, we have four years, let us say, of secondary. I think this is known in Japan as the middle school. And, of course, on top of this we have the college and university, in which we are not specially interested right now. I am trying to give you an idea of how teachers of elementary and secondary schools are trained. This will be the college and university (illustration). We have, therefore, eleven years before you get to the college level—four years of primary, three years intermediate, and four years of secondary. Now then, I want to give an idea of how the two types of teachers are trained—the elementary and the secondary.

However, before I do that, I should like to give a brief historical background of how the system we have at present has developed. With the beginning of the American occupation in 1898, the language used in teaching in the Philippines was of course English. I want you to get the idea, then, that in all the schools (I'm talking about the public schools) the leading instruction has been English since the American occupation. And for the information of my Japanese friends, I might say that this is the case in all types of schools—primary, intermediate, secondary, college and up to the University of the Philippines, which is the State institution of higher learning, that is, corresponding to the Tokyo Imperial. As a matter of fact, the charter of the University provides that no student can be refused admission on account of race, sect, or nationality. That is guaranteed in the charter of the University. However, that is only incidental. I was saying that in the beginning, about 1900, it was decided to adopt the English language as a medium of instruction throughout the school system. The reason for that was very simple. After a survey it was found that the Spanish language was not used, even though, as you know, we had been under Spain for 350 years

before the American occupation. There were many different native languages, so after consultation with the Filipino leaders of the nation it was decided to adopt the English language about 1901. I am giving this background to show that in the early days we tried an experiment in the training of teachers, which I am afraid is not mentioned in the history of education. I think so anyhow. Well, what they did was this. In 1901 there was an order of the Philippines for one thousand American teachers, who were offered opportunities to go to the Philippines and serve in such groups. They were great pioneers, the American teachers. They were more than teachers. They were missionaries, in spirit at least. In 1901 the Philippine government got over from the United States one thousand American men and women teachers to start the public schools. You must remember that at that time the country was in a very chaotic condition because we had just fought a war with America. But early American teachers laid the foundation of the training of the teachers in the Philippines. You have no idea of the difficulty of the task undertaken by the early American teachers. They were scattered all over the country. Conditions were not very satisfactory and they were isolated from their own country, their own women, and they lived among our people. They had to use the English language, and probably there was no one to be found all over the country who spoke English. So what did they do? In the early days, Miss Phillips, an American teacher, held classes in the afternoon to teach the apprentice Filipino teachers. In the early days they really had to teach the apprenticed Filipino teachers their lessons; then the Filipino teachers taught the following morning; so the gap between pupil and teacher was only a matter of short hours. In other words, the Philippine apprentice teachers in 1901 were only one little jump ahead of their pupils. Just think, the lesson taught in the afternoon was the lesson that was taught the following morning. I am saying this as a background. Now, there is a great deal of difference. I will try to show that the gap of one jump between pupil and teacher has widened. The present situation is this. Those early American teachers are almost

all gone. Out of our one thousand teachers, according to our special statistics, there are only 94 left. Now you may interpret this as you please. As educators, I think it means one thing—that these early American teachers did their work so well in training the Filipino teachers that the Filipino teachers are now able to do their work, which is a compliment to most of the Filipinos and their teachers because at present the work of the primary, intermediate, secondary and college and university work is being conducted by Filipino teachers trained, of course, not only in the Philippines but abroad—in America and Europe, especially for the colleges and universities. The present situation—we jump from 1901 to 1937—is like this. These elementary teachers, in the great majority I should say—I have the statistics here—70% are graduates of normal schools. The secondary teachers, most of them Filipinos, are now graduates of colleges in the Philippines. We have one in the present system, what we call “regional normal school.” We have abolished the provincial normal schools. In the early days we had one little normal school for each province. We found that we could not raise the standards in that way; so what we did was to change these provincial normal schools into what we call the regional normal schools. I think there are five of them. There are 49 provinces in the Philippines. Now we have abolished the provincial normal schools except in the south where the Mohammedan Filipinos live. But in the other parts of the country we have regional normal schools, one for the north, one for the central, etc. I think there are five. What is the standing of this regional normal school? It’s like this. (illustration). For admission into the regional normal school you must be a graduate of this secondary school, and you stay two years. Now, in the Philippines at the junior normal college, following the terminology of America, the school above the secondary is the junior college. Well, we invented a term for the junior normal college. Now the regional normal schools use this standard, and the normal school trains elementary teachers.

Where are the secondary teachers trained? They are

trained in the colleges of education, very much like the colleges of education in America. For admission into the college of education, you need to have completed the secondary course, but you take two more years in colleges and universities (illustration). You have one, two, three, four—four-year course under the secondary to be a teacher for the secondary school. I might say, however, in this connection that we have a highly centralized system of education, almost like that of the French or the Japanese. I think more thoroughly Japanese. I think more centralized than the French, because in the spirit of our education the director of education is very wise. That is, the teachers find him so. We are supposed to be a factor in democracy, but in education we have a very highly centralized spirit of organization, I think similar to the Japanese and French. Well, I was saying that elementary teachers are trained in the regional normal schools; most of them have been trained in government regional normal schools. I should say 90%. That also applies to the secondary teachers. I think 85% of the teachers of secondary schools or high schools of the government have been trained at the College of Education of the State University. Now I don't know what else to add to this. I could not go into details to explain the actual work of the training of teachers. We have practically followed the American practice. We have vocational institutes; we have normal institutes; we have exchange or visiting teachers and all those devices and plans and policies which the regular States have in the United States. At present, we have 30,000 teachers in the public schools and several thousands in the private ones. But, of course, the important part of the school education system in the Philippines comes from the Government.

I think you have not found anything especially illuminating or inspiring in my talk because you know we have come here to learn rather than to teach. We come from a small and young nation. However, I wanted to take advantage of this opportunity to speak of the great work of the early American teachers in the Philippines who laid the foundation

for what we consider a truly satisfactory system of the public schools and of training teachers.

The Special Character of Japanese Educators

Dr. Arata Osada

*Professor of Pedagogy, Hiroshima University of Literature
and Science, Hiroshima, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 155)

Status and Function of the Teacher in General Education in Old Japan

Dr. Iwazō Ototake

*Professor of Pedagogy, Tokyo University of Literature and
Science, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 166)

**The Japanese Woman and the
Fundamental Basis for Her Training
as a Teacher**

Mr. Kanehisa Sasaki

*Principal, Kochi Girls' Normal School,
Kochi, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 174)

Election of Officers

The Section elected as Chairman

Miss A. E. Phillips

and as Secretary

Dr. H. L. Smith

Resolution

The following resolution was adopted:

Resolved that teacher-training facilities for the university study of education and related social services including research and graduate study be provided in all lands as a part of the teacher-training programme, and that these facilities should be open for both sexes.

Closing Address of the Chairman

At the close of the session Miss Phillips said in part: "May I just say one word or two about the booklet Mr. Maki mentioned? I do hope that every foreign delegate will read and digest and make full use of this document, which we shall all remember as associated with Mr. Maki. Mr. Maki has charmed everyone here by his amazingly fluent English and the easy way in which he had handled all things which I couldn't handle. I hope we will all read this, partly because it is associated with him and partly because it is an important Japanese document.

I myself am here at this Conference with leave from my school in London and on full salary during my absence. It is a very gracious leave on the part of my London authority, which is paying me and providing a deputy to take my place until I get back to England. Now in return, I have to do something. I have to make a detailed report on educational developments in the countries that I have passed through. I can assure my Japanese friends that this document will be reprinted in London and be in the hands of 15,000 London teachers, who will know something about your Japanese ideals and how you are trying to work them out. I can promise you that."

Contributed Papers

**The Regular and Supplementary Training
of Teachers of Elementary Schools
in Poland**

Polish Organization Committee

The law of 1932 on the structure of the schools has essentially changed the institutions for training teachers.

Until 1931 the teachers of elementary schools were chiefly trained in five-year teachers' training-colleges, to which they were admitted after finishing the 7-class elementary school. In addition to those there were a few yearly training courses for pupils who passed the final examinations of the secondary school; and in the school year 1928-29, two-year courses of pedagogy to which the above-mentioned candidates were admitted.

In 1927-28 there were 218 State and private training institutions for teachers, containing 38,055 pupils. In 1932-33 there were 210 institutions with 30,980 pupils.

The following table gives the number of training colleges, and of the teachers and pupils for each year during the period 1929-1934.

1929-30	201 training colleges ; 2,914 teachers ; 34,718 pupils
1930-31	298 training colleges ; 2,924 teachers ; 33,710 pupils
1931-32	195 training colleges ; 2,704 teachers ; 30,775 pupils
1932-33	179 training colleges ; 2,490 teachers ; 22,704 pupils
1933-34	170 training colleges ; 2,233 teachers ; 16,102 pupils

In order to show the progress made it is enough to mention that, in 1918-19, there were 95 institutes with 9,485 pupils.

The training colleges for teachers were establishments of both general and professional instruction. In the training colleges pupils received general education and special training, which enabled them to begin their professional work in

schools and to improve their own instruction. During the first three years the pupils concentrated on natural science, mathematics, and artistic and technical subjects; in the last two years on humanistic subjects with a large participation in social work, from the point of view of education.

The programme laid strong emphasis on intellectual development and on "independent initiative on the part of the pupils." A number of biological, physical, chemical and handicraft laboratories were organized. Whilst, in 1928, not a single biological laboratory existed, in 1928-29 they were provided in all the State training colleges.

The training colleges also pay great attention to the conduct of their pupils and have attained great results in this direction by helping residential homes existing in most of the training colleges.

The curriculum of the one-year courses for teachers attended by pupils who had completed the gymnasium course consisted of 31 hours of teaching a week and embraced pedagogical, technical, and artistic subjects. These courses were abolished in 1932.

The number of the courses and of the teachers and pupils during the period 1929-1932 were as follows:

1929-30: 10 teachers' courses; 120 teachers; 483 pupils

1930-31: 14 teachers' courses; 128 teachers; 669 pupils

1931-32: 12 teachers' courses; 119 teachers; 432 pupils

In the pedagogic courses there were:

In 1929-30 30 teachers; 359 pupils

In 1930-31 34 teachers; 280 pupils

In 1931-32 49 teachers; 371 pupils

In 1932-33 51 teachers; 285 pupils

In 1933-34 50 teachers; 300 pupils

Pedagogical courses were formed in 1928, the number of hours amounted to 36 hours weekly in the first year. Twelve to fourteen hours of instruction weekly in the first year and ten hours in the second were assigned for subjects concerned with pedagogy and methods.

Artistic and technical instruction and physical exercise occupied 8 hours weekly in the first and the second year. In

the pedagogical courses the candidates had, besides pedagogical, didactic, and technical subjects, a group of compulsory general subjects, for instance, (a) language and history, (b) natural history and geography, (c) mathematics, physics, and so on. Eight hours weekly were allotted to these subjects.

A uniform decree of the President of the Republic, issued in 1928, regulated the rights of the pupils who had finished the teachers' training institutes, as well as the qualifications demanded of teachers in general.

The law of 1932 introduces a new system of training teachers in three year pedagogical lyceums or two-year pedagogical courses called "Pedagogiums."

The pedagogical lyceums will accept candidates over 15 years of age who have completed the course of the secondary school; the Pedagogium pupils must be at least 18 and must have completed the course of the lyceum.

In the pedagogical lyceums and in the Pedagogiums, pupils will receive a general education, a social and civic preparation, pedagogical training and pedagogical practice. The teacher training colleges of the former type will be completely abolished in 1936-37 and the new pedagogical lyceums will be established in 1937-38.

The completion of the course of a State or private training college to which the rank of a State school has been granted, qualifies the graduates for the teaching of all subjects in elementary schools, both public and private.

The law also foresees that there will be teachers giving instruction on certain subjects only, such as religion, drawing, singing, etc. As a rule, a qualified teacher of the secondary or professional school has also the right to teach in an elementary school.

In order to acquire a fixed appointment in a public school, the teacher must have at least two years' practice in a public school and must pass the practical teachers' examination.

Supplementary Higher Training of Teachers in Employment

Teachers in elementary schools show a thorough understanding of the benefits of supplementary training.

In order to facilitate the improvement of their own education, conferences for teachers, attended on the average by about 30 teachers, are held in every district at least 5 times a year. At these conferences a model lesson is given and followed by discussion, reading of papers, etc. There are about 12,000 such conferences in the year.

For a further training of qualified teachers special holiday courses of a month's duration have been arranged for the last few years.

The Ministry of Education insists on keeping up intellectual activity among the whole teaching body. It also attaches a great importance to the creation of a teaching élite by helping gifted individuals to develop their abilities. For this purpose higher courses for teachers of one year's duration have been created. They are divided into groups: (a) pedagogical, (b) language and history, (c) geography and natural science, (d) mathematics and physics, (e) drawing, handicraft, and (f) singing and gymnastics. Teachers admitted to the higher teachers' courses after 3 years' practice and a practical examination receive a year's paid leave or a leave with the return of expenses. The graduates of the higher teachers' course work principally in the upper classes of the elementary school like the graduates of the courses of the Pedagogium.

In addition to the higher teachers' courses there is also a two-year State Institute for teachers in Warsaw, to which distinguished graduates of the higher teachers' courses are admitted. Teachers having a diploma from this Institute are appointed as headmasters, school inspectors, teachers in pupil-teacher practising schools and constitute a pedagogic élite in elementary schools.

The State Institute of Special Pedagogy, established in 1921 in Warsaw, plays an important part in preparing teachers

for special schools. This course lasts for one year, to which qualified teachers of elementary schools who have at least two years' teaching practice are admitted.

These teachers take advantage of paid leaves one year for continuing their studies in special pedagogy.

The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools

The problem of training a sufficient number of teachers for secondary schools was of different nature to that of training elementary school teachers. Nevertheless, at the beginning of the past decade, it presented difficulties almost as great. The situation was at its worst in the western provinces where, before the War, the German secondary State schools had German teachers, who have since emigrated to Germany together with the Prussian authorities. The need of Polish teachers was very acute. In 1919 there were but a small number of Polish teachers in the Poznań Voivodeship. The same state of things prevailed in the beginning of 1920 in the Pomorze Voivodeship. In the central provinces, the situation was much better, thanks to the existence of Polish private schools. The teachers of these schools, together with those of secondary schools from the southern voivodeships, facilitated not only the creation of Polish secondary State schools in the former Russian and Prussian provinces, but the organization of the newly-arising apparatus of school administration. Nevertheless a certain number of teachers without the necessary qualifications had to be admitted to the secondary schools.

In 1927-28 there were in the secondary schools and teacher training colleges 12,755 teachers, of whom 5,875 were in State schools and training colleges. Their number amounted to 15,441 in 1933-34.

The most important question was to guarantee the secondary schools an influx of properly trained new candidates.

There is no question of separate institutions similar to

those attended by future teachers of elementary schools for training secondary school teachers, although much emphasis is laid on the teachers' possessing, besides special knowledge of their subject, a didactical preparation.

The first regulation in the matter of examinations for secondary school teachers appeared in 1920, and was finally settled in 1924. At present, the candidate for teaching in a secondary school or in a teacher training college must have gone through the secondary school and a four-year (during the transition period still three-year) course of university studies (in the faculty of philology, mathematics and science, humanities, agriculture, or forestry); or of studies in at one of the polytechnics (in the faculty of chemistry, electrotechnics, agrarian culture, or forestry) or in the State Agricultural University in Warsaw or the humanistic section of the private University in Lublin.

After completing their studies, candidates take an examination in their own academic school to obtain the degree of Master of Science, of Arts, or of Engineering. Afterwards they can choose either a two-year practice at least in secondary schools, or training colleges, organized according to the regulations of the school authorities, or a year and a half pedagogical studies at the university. Practice in teaching is also taken into account in the latter. After practice or study, they must take a State examination to be qualified for the teaching in secondary schools or in teacher training colleges. This examination is chiefly of a pedagogical character. The diploma secured gives the holder the right to teach in State and private schools and permanent posts in state Schools are insured.

Candidates for teaching in art and technical schools must complete the course of a secondary school or of a teachers training college, and afterwards go through two or three years' special study in a corresponding higher school or academy. To those belong the State Institute for Handicraft and the Institute for Physical Training in Warsaw, as well as the Section for Physical Training in the Universities of Poznań and Cracow, which have been created solely for purpose of

training candidates as teachers of handicraft and physical training in secondary schools and teacher training colleges. The studies are concluded by a final examination to which external students may also be admitted. This examination corresponds to a University examination for a degree. The further course of training is the same as that for teachers of general subjects. As we see from the above, every teacher in a secondary school and training college must finish at least a three-year course of higher studies for physical training and for handicraft a two-year course.

This is a change for the better in relation to pre-war times when teachers were admitted to teach some subjects without having had any higher studies.

The attitude of the school authorities and the community to the activities of teachers in secondary schools became different from that towards elementary school teachers. According to the law of 1922, the teachers' qualifications acquired in the former partitioning States were recognized as valid. Only in exceptional cases were they required to show a knowledge of Polish subjects. Moreover a certain number of teachers in employment who had not quite completed higher studies but had satisfactory practice or passed a simplified examination were also allowed to teach.

Special notice is due to the activity of the former State Institute of Pedagogy which provided two-year courses and studies for teachers of given subjects, especially in pedagogy. It also organized a series of holiday courses facilitating the preparation for the simplified examination.

The law of 1932 on school organization regulates the training teachers of secondary schools, training colleges, lyceums for pre-school female teachers, pedagogical lyceums, and "pedagogiums." This preparation includes training in a certain branch of knowledge, social and civic, and pedagogical practice.

Training in a chosen branch of knowledge takes place in the higher schools. It is followed by pedagogical instruction at one-year courses which may be organized either in the higher schools or separately.

The social and civic training of the teachers is given in the courses in the technical defence of the State, civic instruction, and physical efficiency, as well as in the pedagogical courses. The Ministry settles the period and organization of pedagogical practice either in connection with pedagogical courses or separately.

A permanent instructorate has also been organized to give supplementary instruction to secondary school and training-college teachers and to give them assistance in some subjects.

In order to raise the standard of teaching, so-called "methodical centres" have been organized within the school districts for the study of the subjects included in the curriculum of the secondary school. The activities of each centre extend to several (generally 30) State and private secondary schools. The task of the methodical centres consists in investigating problems which arise in school life. These problems are studied either alone or in groups, the results being presented at conferences which meet two or three times a year. Now there are 59 centres. The Ministry hopes to organize 180 centres, which will superintend all the secondary schools in the State.

Centres are organized in the curatorships of school districts with the co-operation of Instructors from the Ministry. The latter are specialists on given subjects; their task is to keep up a constant contact with the directors of the centres to help them in organizing the work and to give advice. There are one or two instructors for each subject, eighteen in all. The instructors must teach 6 hours weekly in schools and work as well in the Warsaw Central Didactic Laboratory, C.P.D., where scientific apparatus and didactical and methodical publications are collected. On the basis of their own school experience and observations made during their visits to the centres, the instructors, together with advisory commissions organized by them and consisting of eminent teachers, sort the collected materials published by the ministerial "Poradnik" (Adviser) which supplies the teachers with advice and guidance in school work.

Besides general suggestions which are published in the "Poradnik," teachers have access to the Central Didactic Laboratory, where, at appointed hours of the week, they can get information, advice, examine appliance and scientific apparatus, books, and even work out difficult problems under the guidance of an instructor or assistant, if, in their school work, they meet with difficulties in carrying out the curriculum. There are now 11 separate school subject laboratories and a pedagogical one, all found in the Museum of Education in Warsaw, 88 Hoża Street.

The Supplementary Instruction for Headmasters and Teachers is carried out by means of courses, conferences, and meetings.

Particular attention should be paid to the recent organization of the following:

1. Courses for headmaster candidates of secondary schools. The most prominent teachers suited for the position of headmasters take part in them.
2. District conferences of headmasters of secondary schools, which take place once a year in each school district and last for 1 to 3 days.
3. Holiday methodical courses for teachers of every subject which last for 1 to 4 weeks and take place in larger school centres or in holiday resorts.
4. Regional conferences on methods and didactics for teachers which take place 2 or 3 times a year in every methodical centre.
5. Regional educational conferences for teachers, organized 2 to 6 times in every larger school centre.

In addition to this, an important part is played, for the supplementary training of headmasters and teachers, by the *Central Pedagogical Libraries*, founded in the following centres of culture in Poland: Warsaw (the Ministerial Library of the Ministry of Education), Brześć on the Bug, Bia'yystok, Cracow, Lublin, Lwów, Równe, Poznań, Grudziadz, Łódź, Vilna, and Grodno. These libraries possess from 5,000 to 34,000 works on pedagogical subjects or school work. In every library there is a reading room with pedagogical periodicals (80-100), Polish and foreign.

The Regular and Supplementary Training of Teachers for Professional Schools

In professional education the teaching problem is radically different from that of other branches of education.

According to the law of March 11th, 1932, the training of teachers of professional subjects and of instructors includes professional education and practice, social and civic preparation, pedagogical education, and pedagogical practice. Teachers of professional subjects in continuation professional schools and in lower professional schools are trained in corresponding professional lyceums, whereas teachers of professional subjects in secondary schools and professional lyceums are trained in higher schools.

The training of instructors carrying on practical teaching in professional schools is given either in professional schools of the secondary school grade or in special schools for masters and superintendents.

The social, civic, and pedagogical preparation of teachers and instructors of professional schools is given in the courses specially organized for this purpose.

The decree, issued by the President of the Republic on October 21st, 1932, on the qualifications of teachers of professional schools and courses states that in those schools the qualifications required of teachers and instructors depend on the school in which they are employed and on the subject they teach.

The subjects of instruction are divided as follows: (1) professional subjects; (2a) auxiliary subjects, strictly connected with the profession; (2b) auxiliary subjects not directly connected with the profession; and (3) practical professional instruction.

In order to acquire the qualifications for teaching professional subjects in professional schools it is indispensable (a) to have a diploma from a corresponding higher school, (b) to go through corresponding professional—not pedagogical—practice, and (c) to have a certificate of completion of pedagogical

ical courses together with pedagogical practice.

In carrying out the new education bill the further training of professional school teachers in employment has been greatly extended. Two to four-week courses of an informative and educational character have been organized for directors, teachers and instructors. These courses will be continued as long as they are required.

The Training of Teachers in Japan^t: A Historical Survey

Mr. Gon'ichi Hita

*Secretary and School Superintendent,
Department of Education, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 180)

PRE-SCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN SECTION

*Chairman: Miss Frida A. Kruse, McDonald College,
Quebec, Canada.*

*Secretary: Miss Edith U. Conard, Teachers College,
Columbia University, New York, U.S.A.*

*Co-operating Member: Mr. Sozo Kurahashi, Professor,
Tokyo Higher Normal School for Women, Tokyo,
Japan.*

Place of Meeting: Room No. 18.

First Session *Monday, 2nd August, 10 : 30 a.m.-
12 : 30 p.m.*

Second Session *Tuesday, 3rd August, 9 a.m.-
12 (noon)*

First Session

Opening Address of the Chairman

"I will now call the meeting to order. There are a few items of business before we go on with our programme. The first is the notice which you see on the blackboard, as to the giving of your name and organization to which you belong, and it also asks if you will kindly let us know if you have a report from your association. We plan to arrange

Pre-School and Kindergarten Section



Miss Edith U. Conard
Secretary



Mrs. Rose G. Connett
(See P. 179)



Mrs. Q. J. Jafer Ali
(See P. 174)



Miss Agens B. Muir,
*who presented a report on Pre-School
Education in Scotland*

for the reading of the reports tomorrow morning, as our programme for this morning is very full.

I have been asked concerning the visits to the kindergartens in Japan, and I shall consult with Miss Ishihara in regard to that and let you know later.

Our programme this morning is very full, and Miss Lehman has graciously consented to allow her paper to be sent in without reading as we will not have time for all that is on the programme. Those of us who were fortunate enough to attend the Oxford Convention have been looking forward to this visit in Japan for many months, and we are now so charmed at all that we have seen in Japan and especially with the dear, happy, contented little children that we see about us in the streets. We are going to hear something of the work in the kindergartens by some of our Japanese friends. Mr. Minoru Wada will give a paper on "Character Training in the Japanese Kindergarten." He is of the Mejiro Kindergarten Training School, Tokyo, Japan. His pupil, Miss Ishihara, Principal of the Tokyo Kindergarten Training School, will read his paper. Miss Ishihara."

On the Character Training of Children in Japan

Mr. Minoru Wada

*Principal, Mejiro Kindergarten Training
School, Tokyo, Japan*

Miss Kiku Ishihara

*Principal, Tokyo Kindergarten Training School,
Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 257)

The Arts in the Experience Curriculum

Miss Alice Thorn

Professor,

Teachers College, Columbia University,

New York City, U. S. A.

In the first place it would probably be in order for me to take just a minute to introduce myself so that you will know what I speak of, because I am speaking of a particular group in America with whom I have been connected for several years. Of course I believe, as perhaps you do too, that children are alike the world over. Nevertheless it might be interesting for you to know in a few sentences just about the sort of thing that I speak of; so I would like to say that in Teachers College in Columbia University we have, as in many other colleges, a demonstration school which is called the Horace Mann School, and which serves as a practice centre and an observation centre for students in our Teachers College. My function in that department—I was simply introduced on the programme as being from Teachers College—is a demonstration teacher in the Horace Mann School; and we in that way are connected with Teachers College. We have also a secondary capacity. We serve in students' training. One of the ideas of Miss Patty Hill, of Teachers College, of whom you may have heard, and who was such an exponent of kindergarten education, was that in setting up her department in Teachers College, practice should be given to young students in teaching children themselves. In other words; it's the carrying out of the old motto that you must practise what you preach and that you must preach what you practise, so that I just thought you may be interested, if I take the time to say that that is the system which Miss Patty Hill believed in. Many of us in Teachers College who are engaged in teaching students at

the same time in the morning when we teach the children, find that it is very practical, because we cannot steal out in the afternoon and do something quite different in the morning. If we discuss a particular mode or a particular type of teaching, we must be able to do that ourselves, at least to do it as best we can.

My subject is "The Art in the Experience Curriculum." I don't know how much "experience curriculum" means here in Japan because I think we are very apt in any university to have certain types of expressions, particularly among educators. We have in our university what we call the Teachers College Plan, which is a way of describing certain terms which have been used so long that after a while they come to mean nothing at all. Experience curriculum is to plan every single minute of time for children. For instance, as you know, we chose the subjects which we think are good for children to study, and all of our activities are centred around that particular topic. For example, in the fall, if we wanted the children to think about that season, then all the songs were about the fall and all the drawings about the fall and all the experiences were centred about that one thing which the teacher planned, and this practice gave rise to a time-honoured story which many of you I'm sure have heard, but which I am going to repeat again because it seems significant here in this definition of a contrast between the old type of experience and the new. I'm speaking of the old. Once there was a child who was taken to visit the zoo, when they were looking at the animals in the cages, one child was overheard saying to another child when they were looking at the elephant: "Don't look at the elephant, because if you do, when you come back, you'll have to draw it." And so very often we have forced experiences on little children and have planned their experiences with such conciseness and with such group-up organization that some of their own plans concerning their living and thinking have been completely lost sight of. In other words, we have often imposed ways of doing and thinking which have been planned only by the teacher with no thought at all in

regard to the child's interest. Now in kindergartens all over the country, all over the world, in fact, we have given up doing that. We are taking into account the new science, facts, and research which have been made possible by advanced study along this line. We are taking those into account in relation to sound development and growth, and we are planning our experiences for little children on the basis of their own individual development. Many things, of course, must be taught that are in a sense traditional, and there must be certain routines in order to make living in a group easier. Nevertheless, a plan for little children is much more flexible than it used to be, because we know that children do not progress in orderly regular steps, but that each one has a different rate. We are trying in so far as we can with our group to have a child receive the information at the time when he reaches out for it and when he needs it, rather than giving mass information to large groups of children. Some may be ready for it and some may not be, and so the day when we all sang the same song at the same moment and when we all did the same thing at the same time—that day is over, and we are taking into account research as to a child's nature and needs, so that our programme, instead of being a traditional one, is planned for children. In other words, our curriculum for children is what we might call an experience curriculum or a curriculum which is based on the child's development instead of the subject matter which we have in our minds. We are trying to make the curriculum grow out of the need and immediate interest of those children as well as to have it contain those routines which are necessary for them to know in order to live happily with other people. That is a very rough definition of what an experience curriculum means to me so far as this particular discussion is concerned. I am talking now about forty or fifty children in New York City and the experiences that I have had with them. I wouldn't dare recommend that you in your group would do the same, because each group is a group unto itself. No group that we ever had is like any other group we have ever had before. It .

couldn't be. And so our curriculum must be changeable from year to year. We can't pass on the thing we did last year. It can be an enrichment of our own experience, so that when we see the same thing happen we have the information ready to bring to the children, but each group is a law to itself and each community has different types of interest. Then I want to be clearly understood that I am speaking now about American children in an American school in New York City, and that there are some groups of twenty and some larger ones of forty with larger rooms and staffs. We believe that a group of twenty-five children is enough for immature children, because of the conflict of emotions in such very little children. It's very apt to be over-stimulating, so that anything that I have to say is concerned with children in that particular situation.

The reason I feel that I have any right at all to be here is that children over the world are so alike in so many ways. I have enjoyed being in Japan and China, seeing the interesting experiences and reactions of children to their environment. It is fascinating to see how original and how creative and how utterly charming Japanese and Chinese children can be and also how very like American children they are. So while they are very different in many ways, they are also alike. I am going to take just a little time to tell about some of the things that I have observed in working with my own children. They may be like some of the things you have observed with your children, too.

In the first place, the kindergarten has always given recognition to the importance of art in the curriculum, and no kindergarten in the past was complete without a piano, for example. It was just as necessary for a kindergarten to have a piano as it was for it to have tables and chairs. And the kindergarten was the place where a child was freer, where there wasn't any of the pressure of formal school subjects, so that from the very beginning, as we all know in this audience, the kindergarten has given recognition to art in the curriculum. In the old days, the curriculum, as I have just said, was formalized and set, and now we are con-

sidering art as any other subject in the curriculum. We are considering this anew in the light of the child's development when he is four and five years old.

The child and the artist, it seems to me, have much in common. In the first place, a child observes; he is highly emotional; his reactions are quick; he is impulsive; he is not restrained; he manipulates material in his own way and he imitates the ways of other people. Then he does what I believe in my own experience the artist does. If he has had many kinds of experience, imitating as well as manipulating, trying out materials, and if he is in a particular emotional state when only art will satisfy him, he is able to arrange and rearrange some of these elements in certain ways to suit himself. And even though the product may not be a superior one, still for the child at that particular state of his development, it is, I believe, a creative process, and it is only by such experiences, each built on the other, that the child learns. I believe that's one of the important ways in which a child learns. Now the process is somewhat the same except for the fact that the child is not patterned or set. He is free to a certain extent from traditions, and so he is naive as Miss Ishihara was saying. He is what we call spontaneous and so he is not bound by traditions, although sometimes he is very much conditioned by them. He is not bound by experiences of the past and so he is free to express himself. This is true in all of the arts, notably in music; for example, to American children Japanese music would not sound as strange as does to grown-up people; we are patterned in a certain way of thinking about music, whereas the American child, a young child, is not patterned. At least he is still open-minded enough and experimentally-minded enough to expect everything. He is at least ready to give the new a hearing, and that's the difficulty about all of us when we grow up, because our minds are beginning to be tightened and closed and we are not ready to listen to the new or even to give the new an opportunity to make itself felt or heard. But the child is already by nature open-minded and experimental, and the

artist, the mature artist, has to learn to be that way. But he is not successful until he gets the point of view of the child, until he is willing to shake off traditions and to really employ the materials and the methods which he has at hand in his own creative way. So I believe that children and artists have much in common. The process is somewhat the same. The results differ because of added technique and better ways of handling materials in the grown person. It is important to preserve this attitude of mind; while we are seeking to give the child the necessary traditions of his own culture, his own music, or his own literature, it is desirable that we teach the spirit of the artist, that open-mindedness towards the new, that willingness, that reaching out for that kind of thing which is so prevalent in the child. There are so many child artists. Every child is an artist really. His products may not be good, but every child is an artist in the sense of his approach to the material. He is not hesitant at all. He is trying; he's reaching out, but the older we become the more hesitant we become about the new; and so while I say it is necessary to preserve the traditional materials, one of our greatest needs, I believe, in my own group—and perhaps you feel that's true in yours—is that we preserve that open-mindedness, that experimental attitude, that spontaneity on the part of young children, especially in the fields of art. Now we have learned a great deal about some of the arts in our present way of teaching children. For example, in the art of painting, we have done this in many kindergartens. Perhaps you have, too. We have, in the first place, provided time for it. Nobody can really have a satisfactory experience if he is being hurried through in his routine, if every minute of the time is planned for him. Now, that is particularly disastrous for a New York child, because a New York child's time is usually planned all through the day. He can't go out and play on the streets. He must have a nurse, and so he has no free time unless somebody, his mother or his teacher, plans to give him some time which is his own, which nobody interferes with. So if a child is really to be free in art, first of all he must have

time to himself; he must have time in school. It means that we have to have a flexibility about the programme so that we can change and quickly adapt it to the different needs of children.

The next thing I believe children must have are materials with which to work. They must be available at all times.

Another important thing is that we should refrain from asking too many questions of the child when he is engaged in a creative process. In painting we know from research that we can go through certain phases of development. In fact, a teacher can almost tell the age of a child if you show a teacher a child's painting. You can say, "That was done by a child of about three." And if it was done by an older child, you may say, "That child had a superior intelligence." And so research has helped us in this art, so that we know that there are certain regular stages in the process of drawing and painting. So we should not ask children such foolish questions as we used to do. We are leaving them alone. We are letting them experiment. Sometimes we interfere seriously with the child's own point of view about drawing and painting, which is far superior to ours. Most grown people are greatly handicapped in their artistic expressions. If you were asked to draw a cat you know what they would do. This is what they'd do—(Miss Thorn illustrated on the blackboard). That is the only kind of cat I felt that an average adult can draw, and that is because somewhere along the line that pattern was fixed—a cat on a fence. I have never tried that experiment, but I imagine if I should go all over America and ask everybody on the streets to draw a cat, they would draw something like that because they have a certain way, a certain pattern of doing things.

Now, when they are painting we should not ask of children such questions as we used to. We have learned that much about it. And I'll tell you a story about a real child which I hope will illustrate this point. A child brought a drawing to me. He didn't say anything about it, but it seemed to have definite shape and was not just a mass of

lines. He brought me this drawing and showed it to me. I thought he had some purpose in mind; he was trying to depict something. So I said, "What is that?" And that was a foolish question as it turned out to be, because he looked puzzled. And his mother was visiting that day, so that he took the picture over to his mother and said, "What is that?" And his mother looked at it without any hesitation and said, "Well, that's a boat." So he took the picture and brought it back to me and said, "That's a boat." So, you see, he was trying to oblige me. Children are so co-operative that they will do almost anything you tell them, and even the slightest discouragement is of a very great danger.

Once I embarrassed a child very much who did this—(Miss Thorn illustrated on the blackboard). I embarrassed the child by asking him a question about that. I asked him what that was—a foolish question. If he had wanted me to know what it was, he would have told me, but he didn't tell me. I asked him what it was, and he said, "It's a bird cage," and I said, "Where's the bird?" Another foolish question. In a little while I came back to the child, and he had done this—(Miss Thorn illustrated on the blackboard). He said, "It's flown away." Of course, he couldn't draw a bird well enough to satisfy himself, and I had plunged him into a very delicate situation by interfering with this process since he was not, at that stage of his development, able to draw a bird. If he had, he would have drawn it; and if I had tried to teach him to draw a bird, I would have made just as terrible a bird as that of the child, something like this, you see, or some awful thing like that. He could do much better than I did because he hasn't a traditional pattern. He is thinking about the meaning of a bird or thinking about a line which he made by accident and which looked like a bird. So, you see, research has taught us to watch children, and making observations has made us more conscious of their development, so that we are not asking foolish questions. We are waiting for a child to be ready to tell us and to come to us for help. "Help me do this" is a sign of need, so that we at least have gotten that far.

We have not been surprised when the product was crude because it must be that way with a child unless we tell him how to draw everything correctly. Then if we do that, of course he is not learning to think for himself.

Now I'm particularly interested in music, the last of all the arts to be considered in the light of a child's development. We're still not making provisions in many of our schools for expressions through music. We have done well in the traditional forms and we've handed down the culture of the past to little children in the form of folk songs and folk dances which is very necessary. But children have a tremendous amount of creative ability if we only, at the time when we are giving traditional form, make it possible for them to go ahead on their own, because, as I said the other day, we are children and all of us are potential artists. At least we could all do better than we did if we had the chance. That is a comforting thought anyway, whether it is true or not.

Now the things that can be done, the things that many of us have tried to do, are these three things. First of all, to know more about children than we do. Sometimes, I believe, we are so busy teaching that we don't see the children. I really believe that is true. It's like an old saying, "You can't see the woods for the trees, or you can't see the trees for the woods." We are so busy telling them what we think ought to be told that we don't see their reactions. Especially, if we've taught many years we are apt to do the same way this year that we did last year to a certain extent, so that we don't see what they really are doing; and sometimes the only way you can see children as they really are is to watch them outside of school. We take so much time talking to them and constantly holding them to a certain pattern without any free time that we don't see them, because they are also busy trying to do what we want them to do. We don't see their reactions.

Now the second thing that I would suggest to myself, at least in dealing with little children, is that we are willing to give up a pre-conceived plan if we find at the last

minute that that plan hasn't been a good one in the light of the needs of children and their development. The first thing that I would say is that we should know more about the arts ourselves, because we in America have not experienced much art. We have had certain traditional forms, but unless we feel the work ourselves, unless we can appreciate the beauty, unless we have some facility in order to express our own feelings, how can we give that feeling to children? And so, if we are to be more aware of children's needs, we ourselves must learn experience not to be gained in methods of teaching. We must enjoy the arts ourselves. Not that we go to a training school to learn how to do so, because if we are filled with a great desire to participate in an artistic experience, if we are full of appreciation of the beautiful, in music, in painting, in architecture, how much more able we are to appreciate, to understand, to enrich the experiences of children than if we go to a training school and learn merely a certain way to do it. The enjoyment of art makes us open-minded. The other experience very often, unless we have a broad point of view, makes us set on certain ways of doing things and excludes certain beautiful experiences which we should share with our children, and which would help us understand children more.

May I close in saying that I'm sure that at least all of us from America will go back from Japan to our own children filled with an enjoyment of the beautiful in Japan.

**Early Childhood Education in Japan:
Its Past and Present**

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Second Session

Pre-School Education in the Philippines

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Origin and Development

It has been customary for us in the Philippines to speak of pre-school education as a new field, and those who undertake the education of younger children are "pioneers" in the field. It was, therefore, quite a surprise to find from a recent thesis of a student working in this particular field of research for a degree in Education that as early as 1908 some public schools were known to have been conducting kindergarten classes. The purpose of these was apparently to introduce the children to the work of the first grade. It is this idea which seems to have caught hold of the parents, for one of the first inquiries we hear today when parents enrol children in kindergarten is, "How long will it be before my child will read? He already knows the alphabet." "Do you teach writing? My child knows how to write his name."

These early classes did not exist for long. Reasons are not given for their abolishment, but it is safe to presume that finances and the age of the children did not warrant this extra "preparation for the first grade." Little was heard of kindergarten again until about ten years ago when private colleges and other institutions, as well as private individuals, set up "kindergartens" of their own. Today there is an ever-increasing number of children enrolled in these schools, but an interesting factor is that the methods and purposes of these various groups are so radically different from each other that one would scarcely believe that they were a part of the same work.

Present Situation

I do not consider myself an unbiased observer of the present pre-school situation in the Philippines, so I am taking the liberty to quote by permission from the study made by the above-mentioned student. Her research seems to have been thorough, and since it is the only existing record I know of the observation of the entire field made objectively by the same individual, I feel it will suit the purposes of this report. It is impossible for one who is actively engaged in pre-school work to make such a study due to the "closed door" policy which exists between different pre-schools. Rivalry and competition for students is so keen, that one is immediately suspected of "spying" if requests for observation are made. This aspect in itself creates a problem in the way of further advancement in pre-school work in the Philippines.

There is no unified movement in pre-school education in the Philippines. There is no supervision of the activities of such work as is required by the Government of other activities conducted by private colleges and institutions. There is no consultant or advisory body; it is "every pre-school for itself." I shall quote directly from the student report in order to present a picture of the various types of classes to be found.

Varying Types of Pre-Schools

(Type I). This is a kindergarten school with first and second grades now added. The building is a residence with the teacher occupying a part of it as her home. The children who attend are from well-to-do Filipino families and from the European community. From an interview with the teacher who is an English woman, the following is recorded: "I presented in outline form the topics needed for the research but here matters took an unexpected twist. The teacher demanded promptly who it was that was writing on the subject, and then expressed with frank acidity that she considered the research I intended to take up as leading nowhere, further stressing that only by practical experience, not by theories—as the nature of my work was to her—can

the Philippines make anything of itself as a nation. As an illustration of the 'futilities' of our educational practices, the good lady pointed out the courses in home economics offered by certain schools and colleges for which hundreds of thousands of pesos are expended, when the real place that can capably handle such training is the home." The writer deems it propitious to include this record of the conversation because the unfortunate interview was not without significance to any student wishing to make an original study. (And, I may add, such pictures help to present other problems which time does not warrant including here.)

"About the most pertinent information that could be gained was that the school has forty children of both sexes in the kindergarten alone, that there are no problems encountered as far as the parents are concerned; that to be a kindergarten teacher one must simply love children; and finally that the motive which led to the founding of the school lay at the root of an instinctive motherly love for children."

(Type II). "This school seems quite a favourite of the prominent well-to-do families. The teacher is an American and the children who are admitted are either Filipinos or partly of some foreign extraction. No full-blooded American or European children attend the school. Here also the building is a residence. A peep through the wire-screened door showed the kindergarten room to be a veritable page borrowed from a beautifully illustrated nursery rhyme book. Unfortunately in this school, too, permission to observe was not granted. But when the writer ventured to explain that her interest lay in making a study of the socializing value of pre-school education, rather than the details of the method employed, the apparent tension which existed at the beginning gave way to friendliness, and the interview actually became informative.

"This teacher observed that the average home has somehow adopted the idea that character building should properly accrue to the schools, so that for this reason arose the need for pre-school education in order not to delay this important

development in children's lives until they reach the age for formal schooling. It is her belief that while character formation, which is the goal of pre-school education, is mostly realized through spontaneous activities of the children, in the exercise of freedom for self-development children need regimentation. To illustrate this contention an illustration was cited. In planning a project the teacher should fix a goal with a general and tentative plan on its attainment. It is hoped that in discussing the project the natural curiosity of the child will lead him to ask questions which will then furnish the basis for the working out of the project. Here it is evident that the attainment of the aims is paramount in the mind of the teacher and that the actual development of the child in terms of self-activity is only of secondary nature. This teacher does not subscribe to the practice of leaving to the initiative of the child to plan his activity as his interests dictate. She would call this freedom 'license.' Children in this kindergarten class do not map out their days' activity. The whole day is planned into definite periods calculated to bring about a well rounded development of the child. There are periods for 'occupation,' rhythm, lunch, and play in the strictest sense of the word. Songs are taught with the aim in view of teaching social conduct and developing vocal expression. Lunch is served at tastefully appointed tables. This routine is intended to train them in table manners. They may not leave the table until all have finished. Children march in single file to wash their hands before eating. The setting of the table is done by an adult who also puts away the soiled dishes. The children are not required to wash the dishes because, as the teacher claims, the conditions in their homes is such that there is no necessity for them to perform this kind of activity.

"One striking feature of this school is the attempt to instil in the children those little acts making for social grace, such as curtsying when introduced to visitors and when bidding goodbye with the end in view of turning them into little miniature ladies and gentlemen. To summarize: the teacher leans towards what she terms a happy medium between

strict formalism, such as is practised in many sectarian schools, and the absolute freedom allowed the child in others.

"Whatever information is here tendered was only obtained across an office table and not from actual observation. This much may be said, however, of the two kindergarten schools just reported (1) The rather high fees charged, being ten pesos per child monthly, necessarily limits the pupil population to those coming from families of more than average earning capacity. (2) The system of socialization employed is shaped in terms of social levels rather than of socialized conduct."

(Type III) "Someone cryptically remarked that a great many of the kindergarten schools found in the city of Manila take the children out of the garden to closet them in what may be termed a 'glorified-first grade' classroom. If the statement were taken to mean the inclusion of formal instruction in the fundamentals, then this third type of kindergarten would be a good example. This school, established since 1912, makes no denial of the fact that its kindergarten class is decidedly intended as preparation for first-grade work. The programme is divided pretty much into regular formal classes—activity periods consisting of prayers, arithmetic, language, writing, drawing, industrial work, and recess. Two big rooms are assigned to the kindergarten children, one to boys and the other to girls of ages varying from three to seven years. One cannot mistake the evidence that each of these rooms stands for serious study. Row upon row of formal looking little desks line up the room giving an air of disciplinary purposiveness and religious feeling, so that the two large cases of toys standing at one end of the room seem incongruous amidst such an appearance of severity.

"There is no discrimination as to age in the instruction given. The child of three goes through the same process of training in writing as the child of six, instruction in this particular instance being accomplished by guiding the hand of the child or by making him trace repeatedly a number of letters and numbers written on a piece of paper. Samples of the children's neat work were marvels of precocious skill.

"Recess covers one-half hour, the boys and girls again having separate playgrounds. Play here seems not to be considered as an elemental factor for self-development but rather as a means of securing a form of relaxation from the tension of the classroom work."

(Type IV). This school should form an interesting study in contrasts since two of the teachers in above-mentioned schools have been teachers in this school prior to the establishment of their own schools. The student from whose report the above descriptions were taken had a daughter under each of these two teachers and at present her youngest daughter is enrolled in the school, now being headed by the present writer. I will again quote from the student report since it is only fair to put myself under the same scrutiny as that of the other types. I might add that this school is a part of the educational activities of the Philippine Women's University, the only women's university in the Philippines.

"The first five years' activities in the kindergarten class of this school consisted mostly of group singing accompanied by action, marching, playing with small blocks and coloured sticks, plasticine modelling, cutting out pictures for pasting in scrapbooks, applying colour to traced drawings of animals, fruits, etc. Children learned to memorize poems by rote. A part of the class period was set aside for story telling, conducted by the teacher, another for lunch with training in table deportment. The activities were conducted indoors. This was before the era of excursions, jungle gymnas, and brush paintings. In short, the system was characterized by routine rather than by spontaneity. One remarkable note was the carefully routinized precision with which children used to perform numbers calling for group participation in school programmes."

"Under the present management, the kindergarten work took a new turn, basing the socialization and development of the child on principles of applied psychology. Stress is laid not on the completion of a series of projects conceived by adult minds but on the creation of an environment where the child may build habits in active and creative living.

This environment is provided by a spirit of 'naturalness and freedom, making possible spontaneous responses free from unnecessary inhibitions from external control

"Equipment for activity are those which call for 'more active movement,' such as large floor blocks and boards, tools for carpentry, sand, clay, paint, swings, jungle gyms, toys for imaginative play, gardening equipment, and animals. These materials are not thrust upon the child. He is free to make his own choice of activity. The teacher remains in the background. As a result samples of carpentry work and paintings done by the kindergarten class of the Philippine Women's University, while these may be rough in external appearance, are genuine in their expression and therefore possess feeling and interest. They also reveal the stages of mental development that entered in their making.

"A great portion of the time is spent out of doors and particular attention is paid to building up of health in the children."

Since the writing of the thesis in 1936 the Pre-school Department of the University has taken over a two-story concrete building immediately behind the University. The lower floor and grounds are given over to the Kindergarten and the upper floor houses a nursery for children from 18 months to three years. Actually, the children do not stay inside the house except for eating and resting. As long as the weather permits materials are brought out of doors and activities proceed. There are fifty children enrolled in the Nursery and Kindergarten, which meet from 8:00 to 11:00 A.M. Twelve of these children, varying in age from 18 months to six years, stay during the day, having their meals, rest, and baths in school. These are children whose parents are engaged outside the home in professions, and who find the arrangement more satisfactory than leaving the children at home with servants. Four of these children live permanently in the school. The first floor is a combination of work shops; the upstairs provides living room, dining room, bedrooms and kitchen run on a home schedule. The children are responsible for housekeeping duties, such as dusting, keeping playthings

in order, putting away their clothes, setting the table and waiting on themselves. On Saturdays and Sundays they wash their own dishes, but on the other days school activities plus the large number of children present make this impracticable, although during and after the midmorning light lunch each child is responsible for his own dishes and cups. The school is experimental in nature, both along the lines of child and parental education. My assistants are students working for degrees in education, with their especial major being pre-school education, a course given only in the Philippine Women's University, and which aims, through its stress on psychology and sociology, to prepare the prospective teacher to be psychological in her method of attacking the mind and body of the child but sociological in her objectives for the child. Home economics subjects in nutrition and household management, home nursing, and programmes for parental education are also included. The present majors, five in number, are now working on a curriculum based on the particular needs of the Filipino child and on the activities and experiences which may best meet these needs. The particular needs as we have seen them over the past four years of work will be summarized later.

The Free Nurseries and the National Federation of Women's Clubs

Into this already multiple-purposed field now comes a new project which in itself can be considered yet another type of school. It is a project of the National Federation of Women's Clubs with at present 23 nursery classes organized in the city of Manila and around 400 classes organized in the provinces, where at present no pre-school work is being done except that of missionaries.

Originally these classes were organized in connection with the puericulture or health centres and provided a place where the mothers could leave their children while they attended the meeting of the centre. Later as the enrolment and interest grew, mothers sent their children to these classes in

order to keep them off the streets. The enrolment grew until now after two years the enrolment is more than 1,500 children in the city of Manila alone. This is only a small percentage of what it might be if facilities and workers were available. These nurseries are all located in the congested districts and meet for two-hour periods.

The teachers are volunteers, mostly normal or university girls out of employment or working their way through school. They receive a small allowance which covers their transportation expenses with a bit extra, but regardless of this these workers have given unstintingly of their time and energy to the cause of neglected children.

The classes vary in size from 30 to 130 and meet under great handicaps. There is no money for materials, and in general the children are crowded in the clinic rooms which are not exactly the most cheerful places in the world. The teachers gather on Saturday mornings at the office of the Federation to discuss the children with whom they work, their problems, and chances for meeting them together with plans for the play activities of the work. The result is that the children at least have sympathetic friends in their teachers which means slightly more understanding than they often receive at home. They pick up a bit of English in the songs, story-telling, and conversations, and have the chance of learning to get along with their playmates. So far the work has been quite formal, but within the past few months rapid strides have been made, and now, just before sailing time, has come the biggest encouragement of all in the co-operation of the Mayor of the city of Manila and the Director of City Parks and Playgrounds in the working out of a plan to put the Nurseries on the City playgrounds with their own special apparatus. A nursery playfield, being the grassy plot adjoining the playgrounds, will give the children a chance to run and laugh in the sunshine at least a few hours of the day, and a corner of these fields will be set aside for nursery gardens where the children can grow their own green vegetables. That's where the tropics gets a chance to be generous.

That this work has tremendous possibilities for development is evident, but the problems are many and the efforts of a comparatively small group of women will avail little unless Government support can be won. The most serious of these problems are as follows:

1. The non-availability of a teaching personnel duly trained for pre-school education.
2. Poor equipment which also includes lack of proper housing and playground facilities.
3. The absence of effective supervision.
4. Lack of comprehension of parents of the functional value of pre-school education in the development of the child.

Ultimately these problems will be solved. How long, it would take will depend upon how successfully we are able to win the sympathy of the public and the co-operation of Government agencies. Even private subscriptions are most difficult to get; even our private universities have no endowment, so it is improbable that this new field will be more successful in securing such help.

So far the Government has given no recognition to this type of work and has even expressly stated that there is no chance of a fund for pre-school education, but instead it has released thousands for adult education; yet perhaps there is no country where pre-school education is needed as desperately as in the Philippines. The Government through the puericulture centres watches over the health of infants and mothers, but this supervision is relaxed when the child is about two years of age and is not taken up again until he is ready for school entrance at seven years. In the meantime all those precious years are lost. Here are a few statistics which will be more significant than further words.

Based on the most recent census (1918) there are approximately two million children of pre-school age (2 to 7 years) in the Philippines. Of those in the city of Manila less than 2,000 are in pre-schools and more than 1,500 of these are in the free nursery classes of the National Federation of Women's Clubs.

1. Of the offences committed by juvenile delinquents, the ranking three among the boys are :

- (1) Gambling.
- (2) Theft.
- (3) Parental disobedience.

Among the girls are :

- (1) Disobedience.
- (2) Prostitution.
- (3) Vagrancy.

The causes of juvenile delinquency in the Philippines are many among them and those in which the pre-school may be particularly interested are :

- (1) Economic poverty.
- (2) Parental ignorance on proper child development.
- (3) Parental neglect.
- (4) Broken homes.
- (5) Vicious homes.
- (6) Crowded homes.
- (7) Lack of play opportunity.
- (8) Inactivity or absence of occupation.

2. According to a survey made by the Philippine Health Service during 1929, out of the 268,765 school children examined by health doctors out of the total school population, the following were found to be the ranking causes of health difficulties :

- (1) Defective teeth.
- (2) Defective tonsils.
- (3) Trachoma.
- (4) Underweight due to under nourishment, not because of lack of quantity of food, but lack of proper nutritive elements.
- (5) Skin diseases like scabies and boils.
- (6) Chronic colds.

3. In the primary grades, I to IV, there is a rather constant record of failures, being 17 plus per cent for the past ten years.

Such as the above facts have direct bearing on the task ahead for the pre-schools.

Tradition in the Philippines and Its Influence on the Pre-School

The Philippines is at the crossroads in more ways than one. Lying as it does in a strategic position in the Far East brings many outside influences from nations struggling for world power. Which way its future lies is still uncertain. Polynesian, Asiatic Indian, Chinese, Bornean, Latin, and American civilizations have at one time and another left a mark upon Filipino culture, the result of which are cultural conflicts which must be considered when education of both parent and child are concerned. Perhaps this is one of the main factors preventing a unified interpretation of the aims of education as stressed under the Constitution of the Commonwealth, and it makes correlation between the various educational agencies working with the child doubly difficult. At the present time, Latin and Oriental influences are apparently more obvious in the home and home training of the child, whereas the schools exhibit to a great degree the influences of American ideals. This, of course, adds to the conflict between the older generation and its young. As a guide, however, we have the aims of education as stressed by the Constitution (still uninterpreted) which reads: "All schools shall aim to develop moral character, personal discipline, civic conscience, and vocational efficiency, and to teach the duties of citizenship." These are the aims, but the actual conditions obtaining in the home make these aims difficult to attain unless there is an attack on such conditions as the following.

Prolonged dependency upon the mother and the ease with which servants may be employed deprives the average Filipino child of opportunities for problem solving and overcoming obstacles on his own responsibility. Work with the hands, especially household tasks, are looked down upon as fit work only for menials. Repressive methods of discipline are usual. Corporal punishment, instilling of fear and ridicule were the most frequent methods listed by 120 parents of the

professional class on a school record, as means used in the discipline of their children. It is not rare to see four and five-year olds carried to school in the arms of maids; timidity is such a common trait that I have heard it called on many an occasion an inherited trait of Filipino children. It is still held in the Philippines that "children were meant to be seen, not heard." Lack of constructive occupation in the home and regular play habits breed early habits of indifference and inactivity. Play, in general, is considered as futile and a waste of time, at best to be indulged in only by babies and "naughty" children. I have had children each year taken out of my department because all we do is play and the parent wished them to start "learning" so that they can get ahead in school. Sex ignorance and traditional closed attitudes on the subject have perpetuated problems in sex and mental hygiene. "Reading, Writing, and Speaking English" are the three gods of the pre-school child before whom the parents will sacrifice to any end.

Breaking away from this traditional scheme of things in order to meet the great need of the pre-school child is not easy. Parental education must go hand in hand with school education if we are to succeed, but even here we find an appalling inconsistency. While parents will sacrifice to almost any extent to send their children to school, to get parents to come to the school for conference either singly or in groups has so far been an almost hopeless task and the teacher finds it impossible to get out into the homes for visits because of the pressure of constant duties and the lack of trained assistants.

Correlations between Kindergarten and Grades

I cannot pass on without mentioning the old problem of correlation between the pre-school and the first grade. In the schools where formal education is begun in the pre-school there seems to be no problem; however, there is a radical difference between the aims and methods of the work of the

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pre-school department in our university and the formal first grade work. In an effort to bridge the gap a transition grade was organized, with an attempt to use informal and socialized methods of teaching the fundamental subjects. However, this has not been warmly received by the parents who feel this is too much like the kindergarten and who are eager to see their first-grade sons and daughters tackle "*real work*." This is unfortunate since the average age of entrance into the first grade of private schools is not seven years, as in the public schools, but five to six years, and I have known parents to take a child out of the pre-school because he had been there for one year and put him into the first grade even though he was four years of age. Private schools meet these demands of parents because they are dependent upon the parents for the support of the school. There are no such advantages as endowments of private education in the Philippines. The tuition fees of the students must carry on the work of the school. For this reason, there is more consideration of the demands of the parents than there might be otherwise.

Add to this the fact that there is but one-half square foot of playground space per school child in the city of Manila, not to mention the pre-school child; the lack of unity where the education of young children is concerned, and the rivalry among the pre-schools and kindergartens which makes unification of purpose doubtful; the lack of public support of the system in general and the unreceptive attitude on the part of those interested in elementary education; the general lack of appreciation of the significance of the first five years of childhood (it is held sufficient to have amahs or maids for this sort of work, sending children to kindergarten is just the "fashionable thing to do"); the untrained workers who must be used; and one has a bird's-eye-view of the problems to be attacked in the near future.

The Children of Pre-School Education

There is a tremendous challenge to those of us aggressively interested in pre-school education in the Philippines. We are, as a nation, facing an uncertain future. The nation's life is just beginning and much depends on these succeeding years and the start which is made. With this in mind, we believe pre-school education can pave the way for a new concept of education in the Philippines, one which will be more in accord with the aims of the Constitution. Specifically, in our experimental work in the Philippine Women's University we work towards instilling in the child:

1. A love and joy in work, the feeling of satisfaction which comes in the use of one's hands creatively.
2. The making possible for the child opportunities through experience to find out just what he is capable of doing. There must be built a feeling of confidence and power to express that confidence in concrete acts.
3. More opportunities to experience creative relationships with people of his own age-group, adults, and strangers.
4. There must be opportunities for problem-solving, a chance for the child to achieve his own desired ends.

To this end the child can proceed only as he gains an enriched and varied type of experience, as his body is built up into healthful vital alertness, as his eagerness is directed into constructive activity, his emotional conflicts directed into positive behaviour.

I have attempted to sketch briefly the need for pre-school education from the national point of view and from the individual point of view to present a picture of what is being done now in the Philippines and an indication of what needs to be done in the immediate future. Let us hope that this conference will reveal further possibilities of pre-school education and effective programmes for home education and the best methods of training teachers for this work.

Child Education

Mrs. Q. J. Jafer Ali

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The most important problem before us today is that of child education. Unfortunately in some countries such an important problem is not given its due place and is entrusted to those who do not command much knowledge. In fact, they are ignorant of the right methods of training children.

The political question is regarded by some as the most vital one, but in view of the importance of child education which is the stepping stone to law-abiding citizenship, it becomes only a secondary one. Truly speaking, it is the problem of child education which needs our greatest attention. We all know the child is the father of the man. Our activities, therefore, should be directed towards improving him and building his character. If it is not done then it is simply idle to talk of reforming our nation, because in the case of an adult, when once his character is shaped it is well-nigh impossible to reshape it.

The outlines of a child's personality is shaped during the early six years of his existence. The later changes only fill in the colours in the picture and make it more complicated and interesting. Before a child begins to think rationally his habits are beginning to be formed and what may be called second nature starts to take shape. It is a wrong conception that with the advance of age a child's personality begins to change. No such thing ever occurs. A child's personality is formed at a very early stage and this is the time when his undisturbed and flexible mentality is capable of being moulded in any form whether for good or evil. Some parents are under the wrong impression that their innocent child is incapable of understanding their word or action. This is a destructive idea and hinders all constructive work. It is an

established fact that even a year-old baby acts according to his environment and is largely affected by it. It has been observed that children go and meet some people with a smile and look of pleasure on their faces, while in case of others they refuse to do so, in fact cry out and abhor them. It is just possible that this phenomenon may be considered as one of the idiosyncrasies of children, but the fact is that children, like animals, have some very sharp instincts and a keen perception. The most painful thing for a child is the neglect of parents towards him whether deliberate or otherwise. A common instance of this is the birth of another baby in the family. This creates a very delicate situation for him, the reason being the diversion of attention from the first to the second. The former, who up to the advent of the second was the centre of attraction for his parents, thinks himself superseded and his rights usurped by the other. He finds himself unable to cope with the new situation thus created and impotent to remedy it. Sensible parents always foresee and make the child conversant with the situation and let him see the true perspective of the picture and also create a pleasant atmosphere for him so that he should feel by himself that under a certain set of circumstances which nature has created he should help his parents, avoid obstructive tactics, and take things as they are. If they succeed in achieving this they will discharge a sacred duty, and by their conduct the child will come to feel that the newly arrived guest is some mystery, and that he should try his power of perception and understand the newcomer. He would also conceive a pleasure in the birth of the baby and consider himself a companion of his own in all his interests. But the child can only entertain this idea if he is fully assured of the fact that no ulterior pressure is brought to bear on him. This is the great lesson which scientific research and modern psychology have brought us.

It is desirable that parents and teachers should set a living example. Children imbibe their ideas from the conduct of parents and teachers. In fact, they try to copy their elders and whatever they see around them, which is natural. It

should never be imagined that children are without a proper understanding and general common sense. This fact should be well assimilated by both teachers and parents. Although children have not the power to think deeply, yet they feel all the same what goes on around them, and they watch every movement with interest and are deeply affected thereby. Only those children who are reared and brought up in a calm, cool and peaceful atmosphere develop their mental powers well.

To punish a child is such a horrible crime that it cannot be rectified, and there are no extenuating circumstances for forgiveness. A child does not weigh and consider the consequences of his act like a grown-up. All his actions are the result of his unbounded energy and his will has no hand in it. He is always innocent. He has not so much understanding as to realize and understand the real significance and importance of any punishment meted out to him. Corporal punishment is only "hurt" to him which he may get in play or anywhere also. It is just pain and he will not be able to differentiate from the one to the other, whether received accidentally or inflicted deliberately to correct him. Punishment will only create fear and disaffection which are the forerunners of hysteria, and this might also affect his health and bring on other complications as well. People wonder why their children are hysterical, do not enjoy good health, are disobedient, are not affectionate, or at times even repulse their parents. Every corporal punishment or cruel treatment towards children, such as shutting up in a room, refusal to give them food at the proper time, inattention, absence of affection, turning them out of the house even for the time being—all these things are really deserved by those parents who inflict them on their children. It has been observed that some parents often complain of the moral turpitude and insolence of their children, but very seldom realize their own weaknesses. In 99 per cent of the cases of those children who do not become good, law-abiding, peaceful citizens, the reason is to be found in the fact that their early upbringing was sadly neglected and conducted on wrong lines. For instance, a wrong atmosphere (such as always finding

fault with the child) would not only affect his health and make him subject to hysteria or kindred nervous diseases, but also create in the subconscious mind of the child a type of feeling which is commonly known as inferiority complex. Similarly, praising him too much would create in him an exaggerated ego or superiority complex. In both these cases the grown-up is utterly useless to himself as well as to those with whom he comes in contact. A psycho-analysis of every individual child is necessary to impart the right kind of education and a proper upbringing. The correct type of environment is mostly needed for him so that there may be no mental disintegration and so that he may grow up in a peaceful atmosphere.

As matters stand, the Montessori method is the best known one. It is the only system which seriously aims at developing the physical as well as the spiritual side of the life of the child. In other words, the system aims at creating a wise, normal, intrepid, and fearless human being. The teachers or educators of the child must, first of all, understand their duty and realize their own and the child's limitations. Humanity which, like the rising sun or the flower in the first unfolding of its tender petals, manifests itself in all its intellectual splendour during the tender and beautiful age of childhood should be respected with religious veneration. If an educational act is to be beneficial it can only be one which tends to help the complete unfolding of life. To be thus really helpful, it is necessary to avoid vigorously the arresting of spontaneous movements and the imposition of arbitrary tasks. It is, of course, understood that here we are not speaking of useless and dangerous acts, for they must be suppressed and any tendency towards them totally destroyed.

The fact has now been established that it is only in the atmosphere of due freedom that a child can manifest itself naturally and spontaneously. The teacher is to direct its stream of life through the right channels. She ought to give a hand when help is needed. She should be like the vitalizing sun awakening young life and spirit with her love and helpfulness. She must not limit her action to mere observation,

but proceed to experiment. When the teacher gets into touch with her pupils in this way, a mutual understanding is created, awakening and inspiring the life in them as if she were the guardian angel. She comes into possession of the confidence of her pupil and a sign from her is sufficient to check them from going astray. She is recognized and listened to by all of them, and discipline is obtained as if by magic.

The fact cannot be over-emphasized that the child is the future hope of every nation and much depends on the way he is brought up and educated. Hence we ought to take every possible care, provide every facility for children, and allow them to develop rightly their dormant faculties. But this is only possible when the energy and attention of parents and educational authorities are directed towards this end in all seriousness by adopting the right methods and selecting a curriculum suitable to the requirements of the country, its genius, and the people, while at the same time, keeping pace with changing times.

Our Kindergarten

Mrs. Catherine Akana

Shoei Hoiku Senko Gakko, Kobe, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 271)

Kindergarten Education in New York City

Mrs. Rose G. Connett

25 Prospect Place, New York, U.S.A.

In the planning of the education of young children in the city of New York we do not confine ourselves to the narrow environment of the classroom. It is not too much to say that in our effort to make of a curriculum which covers the interests, needs and abilities of a four to six-year-old group we hope for a national recognition and even a world impression.

In our city at the present moment there are 979 kindergarten classes and 177 kindergarten extension classes in the public schools. That is to say, the kindergarten extension classes are taught by teachers holding kindergarten licenses and using an activity programme.

To clarify my opening remark, let me say that in going beyond the confines of the kindergarten classroom, the kindergarten teacher co-operates with the homes and mothers by visiting individual conferences and meetings. In the year ending March, 1936, New York City kindergarten teachers made 3,707 visits in the homes. In less than a year, in the period ending April 30, 1936, 2,782 parents' meetings were held with an attendance of 103,335 parents. Are we, with these figures to sustain us, too optimistic in our hopes for a national effect on the lives and education of the very young child?

Also through the medium of trips (which numbered 5,038 in a period of less than one year ending June 1, 1936) are we not broadening the concepts of the small child and thus receiving a wider understanding of world events and future activities?

To build this "house of childhood," if I may be allowed a figure of speech, the kindergarten teachers, representing the

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builders, confer with the directors through frequent meetings and conferences—perhaps 50 a year both in the district and city.

Thus by preparing the small child emotionally, socially, and mentally for the basic social arts and skills we are serving the State from an economic standpoint by having better prepared children for an entrance into the lower grades where they attain successful achievement; therefore, we have happier children, enthusiastic students, less retardation, satisfied parents, and economy and efficiency in the teacher staff.

There is no question of the wisdom of the wide establishment of kindergarten and kindergarten extension groups as an integral part of the elementary division of the public school system.

National Federation of Kindergarten, Nursery School, and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers of Canada

Miss Noreen D. Dorrien

First Chairman, National Federation of Kindergarten,

Nursery School, and Kindergarten-Primary

Teachers, Toronto, Canada

(Read by Miss Birdie Russell)

National Federation of Kindergarten, Nursery School, and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers of Canada, North America, a Dominion of the British Empire, sends greetings to the Pre-school and Kindergarten Section of the World Federation of Education Associations.

Canada with its vast area of some 3,684,723 square miles from the shores of the Pacific to the mighty Atlantic—from the boundary of her good neighbour country, the United States,

to the Arctic—is making splendid progress in childhood education.

The province of Ontario leads the way with kindergartens as an integral part of the public school system in the cities and in private and charity nursery schools that are established in many places. There are kindergarten training departments in the normal schools and a training centre for nursery school teachers affiliated with the Toronto University.

Some five years ago in Ontario, the National Federation was organized. It is affiliated with "The Canadian Welfare Council" and meets annually in October in convention, with some 300 delegates in attendance.

The *aim* of the Federation is to link together all departments of childhood education, to awaken and sustain interest in progressive elementary education, and to provide a means to establish across our vast country nursery schools and kindergartens.

It is the purpose of the Federation to organize convention meetings in the West and East of Canada with an interchange of delegates, and in this way we cover some 5,300 miles across the cities, towns, villages, and rural districts.

National membership consists of members active in service, honorary members who are non-active, and city associations, kindergarten and nursery schools.

With the good of the children of Canada as our aim, we look forward to the day when Canada, through her children, will be the fairest flower in the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Reports from Various Countries on Pre-Schools and Kindergartens

(Read by the Secretary)

Czechoslovakia

In Czechoslovakia the kindergartens are maintained partly by the State, partly by the association called "Ústředni Matice Školská"; in the large cities, by the municipal authorities.

The city of Prague has 86 kindergartens and nurseries and gives all the financial support.

The nurseries are for babies from 6 weeks to 18 months, and for toddlers from a year and a half to three years of age. The children can stay from 7 in the morning until 6 in the afternoon, and they get three meals a day. The babies are cared for by the nurses, the toddlers by the nursery workers.

The kindergartens take children from 3 to 6 years of age. Some children stay from 8 to 11:30 a.m. and from 2 to 4 in the afternoon. That is the regular educational session. The children of working mothers or the children of unemployed people can stay from 8 in the morning until 6 in the afternoon. They get two meals and take a nap after the luncheon until 2 o'clock.

The educational work in the kindergarten is still progressing. The city of Prague maintains for the kindergarten teachers an institute called "Studovna," that is, a study-laboratory with a pedagogical library. Here the teachers study the new methods in different fields of their work. The teachers work in the following groups:

Speech and its defects

Child's literature

Music and rhythm

Physical culture
Technical education
School administration
Social welfare
School theatres

In the past year the group for music and rhythm has worked very well, has gathered much material on the child's musical development and this year will publish new song books for kindergartens.

Much care is also given in the kindergartens of Prague to the child's speech. Three kindergarten teachers work as specialists in phonetics. Each one has one-third of the kindergartens of Prague and comes once a week in each school to work with the children whose speech is not quite correct. The children are examined at the medical clinic, the department of phonetics and the practical exercises are being done by these three teachers. This work has achieved great success and helps very much the first-grade teachers.

Sweden

News from the pre-school and kindergarten section in Sweden 1936-1937.

T. S. B. (The Tenants' Savings Bank and Building Society) has erected a seminar for training educators for the pre-school age.

The Central Association for Social Work arranged a conference of educators, physicians, and others to discuss the problem of pre-school education.

The Government has delegated a commission to study the movement of population, and the same commission also considers the question of public support and inspection for institutions dealing with pre-school children.

Many towns provide summer playgrounds under leadership for pre-school children.

Italy

The first pre-schools in Italy were founded about 60 years ago by an educator called Aporti. The methods have somewhat changed, but the results have been so good that their number rises constantly, especially in the latter years. They are now cropping up even in the smallest village as a necessary preparation for the public schools.

Buildings are of a very modern type, with heating and every sanitary requirement (baths and douches). Gymnasiums are being erected all over the land since elementary education has passed into the hands of the State.

Some of the pre-schools, especially in rural districts, are located in the same building as the primary schools, but as a rule pre-schools are founded and run by private endowment, and they have their own little bungalows surrounded by a garden, and a plot for growing vegetables, and the teacher lives there; they are naturally under the supervision of the educational board of the county.

The teachers who apply for the posts have to go through a special course of education and training (seven years in all) to achieve the State diploma which is required from them. In many cases nuns run these schools, but they also must take a State degree.

The teachers are generally bright young people, and owing to a law passed in the year 1927, all women employed may marry without losing their jobs and are entitled to old-age pensions.

The children stay at the pre-school from three to six years of age, six being school age. They stay from morning till noon and bring a basket with their midday meal. However, nearly all pre-schools provide a warm meal and it is paid for by State Child Welfare funds, as experience has shown how invaluable regular nutrition is to the growing child.

Unless the weather is bad the children stay out all day

and they can have their small tables and chairs with them; benches and the ensuing cramped position are forbidden.

When the children leave pre-school they know all their letters. They can write simple one-syllable words, write figures up to 10, and their drawings both on slate and paper are amongst the most interesting things to be seen. Some show an unexpected spirit of observation in their rudimentary way of expressing events which have either been related to them or come under their notice (street accidents, airplanes, etc.)

Games, singing, and rhythmic callisthenics are part of the day's work, also simple knitting and needle work. The children are taught to dress themselves without calling for help; wash their face and hands before meals; lay the table; be tidy and neat. Some of them are like little mothers to the tiny ones and we find that these neat habits brought home by the children have contributed to raise the standard amongst the working class to whom they belong.

Many of these pre-school bungalows afford a country holiday to town children while their own inmates are taken to the sea or the mountains if the school doctor considers that their families are unable to give them the holiday they require.

Austria

Towards the end of the nineteenth century friends and promoters of education in Austria began to interest themselves thoroughly in the education of children of pre-school age. The institution which corresponds to our kindergarten of today has had very modest beginnings. There were at first day nurseries (*Kinderbewahranstalten*) and creches (*Warteanstalten* and *Krippen*), where children, whose mothers had to work away from home during the day, were received. Froebel's games and occupations were first introduced in Austria in an institution for imbecile children at Liesing near Vienna. By and by through new foundations of kindergartens the transformation of day nurseries into kindergartens took place. The first day nursery in which the change took place in the year 1868 was that under the management of Director Fischer in Vienna. The idea of founding kindergartens was propagated throughout the whole of Austria. Their supporters were chiefly societies and private persons. In villages with factories, the owners of the factories founded the kindergartens. The task of these was to take care of and nurse the children during working hours. They were open from 6 o'clock in the morning till twelve o'clock (noon) and from 1 o'clock p.m. till 7 o'clock p.m. Other kindergartens, which had been founded by societies and private people, increased in the seventies as so-called "society" and private kindergartens, and even still exist as such. They are only open for some hours each day. They are called "normal kindergartens."

Under the guidance of three teachers interested in kindergartens (Directors Kugler, Deinhardt, and Fischer), who founded in the year 1879 the "Society for Kindergartens" (today the "Professional Association of Kindergarten Teachers of Austria"), the followers of Froebel were associated together. Members of this Society are to be found in each of the federal provinces.

Owing to the work of this society the idea of kindergar-

tens found continuously an increasing response in Austria, so that the kindergarten movement is always upon the increase in the different parts of Austria. In the majority of cases, especially in the provinces, the kindergartens are conducted as "normal kindergartens."

Owing to the fees charged, only children of wealthy parents frequent those kindergartens kept by private people or societies.

The cost of maintaining "society-kindergartens" could not be fully covered by membership fees and donations; hence the parents of the children frequenting the institution had to pay a fee of from 1 to 3 florins per month. The number of free places for children was very small. In spite of this it became increasingly difficult to maintain kindergartens founded by convents, societies and private individuals, until finally the public interested itself in these institutions, and municipalities, provinces, and the State undertook their maintenance.

There was to begin with a tendency to promote these institutions by granting them subsidies, until they later became entirely adopted by the public authorities. The struggle for the economic security of the kindergartens was thus facilitated. Nevertheless the development of the kindergartens was hindered by the disinclination of many teachers and doctors towards them. It was only the Imperial Elementary School Law (1869) that brought a change in this respect by enrolling the kindergartens in the elementary school organization. Another motive for the spread of kindergartens was the Kindergarten Law of 1872, which recognized their usefulness and made their promotion a duty of the school inspecting body. The same law also required the foundation of experimental kindergartens at the normal schools for women teachers (§37/2). Austria today stands relatively very little behind other prominent States as regards the number of its kindergartens.

The above-named bodies maintaining kindergartens (municipalities, provinces, and the State) soon recognized that the "normal kindergarten," which was only open for a few

hours daily was insufficient for a certain class of the people. In thickly populated centres, especially in towns, the necessity of extending this institution arose. "Peoples' kindergartens" open uninterruptedly from 7 o'clock in the morning till 6 o'clock p.m. were started.

As far back as the year 1886 the then existing "Society for Kindergartens" addressed a memorandum to the Vienna Municipal Council, regarding the foundation of peoples' kindergartens. In this memorandum the Society requested that the extension of kindergartens be encouraged by the provision of accommodation for them when school houses were being built.

Having had its attention called to the difficulty of maintaining private kindergartens by the Society, the municipality of Vienna took over 11 kindergartens in suburban districts between 1889 and 1893; during the following years they took over a number of "society kindergartens," so that by 1912, 23 and by 1918, 57 kindergartens were owned by the municipality. The payment of the fees in these kindergartens was partly abolished and partly reduced in comparison with the former fees. The working hours were from 8 to 11 o'clock in the mornings and from 2 to 4 o'clock in the afternoons. At that time they were still conducted as "normal kindergartens."

It was not until the post-war years that an extension and increase in numbers began in all the larger Austrian towns. The "normal kindergartens" were converted into "peoples' kindergartens" with the above-named working hours (from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m.). At present only a few institutions in districts where "peoples' kindergartens" are not needed, are conducted as "normal kindergartens."

The extension of the "peoples' kindergartens" made a noon-day meal necessary. The Viennese kindergartens were supplied for some time by the "American School-Feeding;" whilst the children received a breakfast through the Dutch Relief Fund since October, 1922 the municipality of Vienna has carried on the noon-day meal and the breakfast at its own expense. Payment (*Pauschalbeitrag*), based on the financial situation of the parents, is required. The greater

proportion of the children are admitted gratuitously. The Juvenile Welfare Office has been entrusted with the administration of the municipal kindergartens in Vienna and Graz. The municipal kindergartens are therefore under the authority of the Juvenile Welfare Office (*Jugendamt*)—a department of the Office of Social Welfare (*Wohlfahrtsamt*). All kindergartens in Vienna—both municipal and private—are either under the Municipal School Board or directly under the Ministry of Education. The children are allocated to the municipal kindergartens of Vienna according to the following plan: 75% are allocated by the Juvenile Welfare Office, whilst the remaining 25% can be accepted by the head-mistress of the kindergarten.

Austrian kindergartens are conducted with one or more departments. In Vienna some have as many as 7 departments.

The highest number of kindergartens is in Vienna. Then follow, according to the number of kindergartens, Lower Austria, Styria, Upper Austria, Tyrol, Burgenland, Salzburg and Carinthia, and Vorarlberg.

Besides the public kindergartens there are in Austria very many private and church kindergartens. For the private kindergartens a concession is necessary. In order to obtain this a two-year course for kindergarten teachers must be followed and two years of practical work in a public kindergarten must be performed.

There are, in Vienna, besides the municipal establishments, two State kindergartens. Kindergartens started by private individuals or associations are always on the increase.

Austrian kindergartens are, with the exception of a few Montessori groups, conducted in accordance with Froebel's ideas. In Vienna, besides several Montessori groups in the municipal kindergartens, there is also one, "The Children's House (private), conducted according to Montessori methods.

Lately a new type of educational establishments have been created by combining kindergartens with Play Centres (*Horte*, i.e., day nurseries for children from the 6th to the 15th year of age). This is the *Jugendheim* (Home for Juve-

niles. To it children of from 3 to 14 years of age are admitted.

There are in Vienna today 73 kindergartens with 181 departments, 28 "Homes for Juveniles" with 75 kindergarten-departments and 49 "Horte" departments, and 9 "Horte" with 41 departments.

Of these 254 kindergarten departments, 240 are conducted on Froebel's principles and 14 on Montessori's. For abnormal children three departments are provided, whilst there are one each for deaf and dumb, imbecile, and problem-children. All three groups are frequented by children from all the Vienna districts.

The children are prepared for the school best suited for them.

A kindergarten teacher working in the group for difficult children maintains contact between clinic and parents in order to bring about an improvement in the morbid condition of the children.

In carrying out the pedagogical work of the institutions the rules prepared in study circles and conferences must be followed. The choice of lectures is reserved to the pedagogical committee under the chairmanship of the lady inspector.

Pedagogical measures in the kindergartens and "Horte" are being discussed in monthly conferences of head-mistresses.

For the continuation of the studies of the *Kindergartnerinnen* two "Homes for Juveniles" are available for internes.

The contact between kindergarten teachers and school is so arranged that kindergarten teachers working in the upper groups attend as internes in the elementary classes of the primary schools and take part in discussions in study circles dealing with educational methods.

All the institutions are included in the Juvenile Welfare Office. They are open during the whole year, only a few kindergartens being closed in summer. The pedagogical work in these establishments is done by *Kindergartnerinnen* or "Horte" tutors. To all kindergartens and "Horte" a day nursery staff is assigned according to the size of the establish-

ment. The management of the kindergartens rests with the head-mistresses, who are chosen from the *Kindergartnerinnen*. The pedagogic direction of all municipal establishments in Vienna is in the hands of the two lady kindergarten inspectors. The inspection of the private and public establishments in Austria lies in the hands of the district school inspectors.

In the official statistics kindergartens and day nurseries (*Bewahranstalten*) are included together as follows:

Vienna	261 kindergartens and infant schools.
Lower Austria	237 kindergartens and infant schools.
Upper Austria	136 kindergartens and infant schools.
Salzburg	30 kindergartens and infant schools.
Styria	157 kindergartens and infant schools.
Carinthia	30 kindergartens and infant schools.
Tyrol	54 kindergartens and infant schools.
Vorarlberg	24 kindergartens and infant schools.
Bergensland	32 kindergartens and infant schools.

Of the 15 normal schools (schools for the education of *Kindergartnerinnen*) in Austria, 4 are State establishments and 11 are private institutions (convents).

To sum up: There are public and private kindergartens and publicly recognized (*Mit Oeffentlichkeitsrecht*) private kindergartens. Those can be "normal kindergartens,"—also called school kindergartens—, peoples' kindergartens, or Homes for Juveniles (*Jugendheime*).

The attitude of the authorities, who have the promotion of education and care of infants in public establishments at heart, the approval of the kindergarten by the teaching body and the medical faculty leave open many ways for the development of the kindergartens.

Interesting facts about infant education in Austria, particularly in 1936

First and foremost: maintenance of all existing institutions

More importance is given to religious education with little prayers in the morning and before the meals along with little verses.

Further deviation from Montessori.

Spring 1936: Lecture of Dr. Montessori in Vienna on the subject "Liberty and Authority." Very many attended it, and it was discussed in almost all newspapers.

Thorough education of the *Kindergartnerinnen* (kindergarten teachers).

Special courses for *Kindergartnerinnen* in the Pedagogical Institute of the Municipality of Vienna.

Further inclination to form groups according to age instead of family-groups.

Egypt, North Sudan, and South Sudan

Egypt

In Egypt there are three quite unrelated systems of education. There is the ancient University of Al Azhar with its subsidiary schools, a system of education altogether Islamic and oriental in its methods and aims. Secondly, there are the elementary schools which provide for the education of some 700,000 children. In these schools the teaching is in Arabic and is largely based upon the Koran. The teachers are not trained in any European sense and the learning is almost exclusively memorization. Thirdly, there is the Europeanized system of primary, secondary, and higher education caring for

some 250,000 students from the ages of five to twenty-five years.

Experiments are being made with new types of schools, especially with kindergarten schools. The teachers of the kindergartens have usually studied in England and have the Froebelian diploma. Consequently the kindergartens are well equipped and modern in methods. There are ten Government infant schools; six in Cairo, one in Alexandria, one in Mansoura, one in Tanta, and one in Assiut. There are in addition eighteen other kindergarten sections attached to primary schools for girls. The length of the course is three years. The fees are £ E 9 per year, which includes the midday meal. In the last few years there has been a change in the attitude toward little children and a greater respect for those who teach in kindergarten schools. Formerly little children were crammed with learning and five-year-olds had private lessons after school hours. Today the infant school plans a programme in keeping with the ability of a five-year-old child. The programme consists of Arabic, arithmetic, nature study, drawing, music, games, ethics, and handwork. Arabic is made attractive by new illustrated readers; writing is taught by drawing the letters in the sand and molding in clay. Gardens of flowers and animal pens make the nature study lessons real and interesting. In the special infant schools music and the rhythm band are important features. The handwork is usually a project of the teachers, such as raffia work, reed or bead baskets, small rugs, woolen flowers, and toys.

Only within the last six years has there been any literature for little children. Kamel Kilani has translated stories and published four books for little children, as well as a number for the older group.

There are national community schools to which are attached kindergarten sections. The main object of these schools is to give to their own nationals the kind of education and culture which would be given in their own countries. Among them are Italian, Greek, Jewish, and Armenian schools. Many are supported by their own communities or by their

own governments.

There are also cosmopolitan foreign schools, such as the French and the English schools, as well as the American mission schools. Children are admitted without distinction of race, nationality or religion. The American Mission has a training school for kindergarten teachers at Tanta. Two kindergarten teachers, graduates of the school in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, supervise the work of the fifteen kindergartens in our American mission schools. We have translated forty-eight stories and poems and have published the same. We have also translated a number of songs and games.

We have worked out a plan for teaching Arabic phonetically. Two things led to this method, namely, the fact that Arabic is a phonetic language with not a silent letter and the written language is not the spoken language. Consequently sentences in the classical language so often do not convey an idea to the children. We have tried to meet this need by teaching the children to use the classical in dramatizations, songs, stories, and descriptions of pictures. At the same time we have introduced the letters with the three vowel sounds by means of alphabet posters. Since there are twenty-eight letters, each with three vowel sounds, we have eighty-four posters. As the word and its initial sound are introduced by the picture of an object which the child knows it is readily understood.

In our games and handwork we seek originality and freedom of expression.

North Sudan

I had interviews with Dr. G. C. Scott, Acting Director of Education in Khartoum, and with Miss Pode who is in charge of education for girls in the Sudan. There is a Government training school for girls who desire to teach in the kindergartens or primary schools. This school is under the supervision of Miss Pode and Miss Harvey. In visiting the kindergartens I was impressed with the controlled freedom of the children. The cupboards were built so that they were

accessible and the children waited upon themselves. Miss Pode and Miss Harvey are endeavouring to use Sudanese songs and games. Since the children leave their shoes at the door they are very light and free in their dancing.

Dr. Scott has published an Arabic reader for little children in which he uses the classical language and yet has carefully chosen subject matter familiar to the children.

The Government is carrying on an experimental school in elementary work at a village called Bukht er Rhoda near Khartoum. The boys make their own musical instruments from reeds and bamboo for their orchestra. They set their own problems in arithmetic and draw up plans for geography lessons. It is an endeavour to make education practical to Sudanese lad.

The American Mission has two kindergartens in the North Sudan: one at Khartoum North and the other at Omdurman. Nine girls this year have taken the course which is given at Tanta, Egypt, and have received the certificate in acknowledgment.

South Sudan

I was privileged to visit among the Shilluk Tribes at Doleib Hill on the Sobat River, nine degrees north of the equator and several miles south of Malakal on the White Nile. These little children, in reality of savage peoples, have to be lured into the ways of education. Our American missionaries supervise a school for boys and for girls. Inasmuch as these are the only schools among this tribe they receive a subsidy from the Government. Rev. Mr. Alfred Heasty and others have analyzed this language and are now compiling a dictionary and have printed books by means of a multigraph for the schools. Mrs. Heasty has the small children. I believe her success lies in the fact that whenever the children are restless and inclined to savage yells she opens the door and lets them out into the fields. Their nature study lesson on pythons, rhinoceroses, lions and tigers was quite familiar to their experiences. Their handwork consisted

in clay, modelling and weaving. Red clay is procured from the Sobat River. Since the little girls wear only a tiny apron, the small mats which they weave are in reality their socks. In games our missionaries endeavour to keep the dances, songs, and plays which they find among the peoples. The picture enclosed shows the Hoopoo bird. With a stick tied to his head the child lies on his stomach. He is then covered with a cloth. As the rest of the children sing he moves his head in imitation of the movements of the Hoopoo bird.

Since little girls are responsible for caring for the babies in the home, Mrs. Heasty has opened a nursery school in order that the sisters may be free to carry on in the kindergarten. Two older girls from the village care for the babies in a "tukl" or native house built for this purpose. The babies are given milk to drink and laid down to sleep on a soft deer skin. For amusement they have sand and beads made from bamboo and dyed in different colours. This is doubtless the most primitive nursery school on your list.

U. S. S. R.

In the U.S.S.R. the institutions for children under three years of age are under the People's Commissariat of Health and those for children from three years upward are under the People's Commissariat of Education.

Babies under three years of age are called nursery children and only those from three to seven are called pre-school children (doshkolniki).

The principal type of educational institutions for nursery children (from the birth to three years of age) are creches.

The principal type of institutions for pre-school children (3-7 years of age) are kindergartens.

There are creches and kindergartens in cities and towns as well as in the country on State and collective farms.

Besides these two principal types of nursery and pre-school institutions, creches and kindergartens, there are many other kinds of institutions for taking care of children: playgrounds (the pre-school playground functions from three to seven months a year), the so-called groups for walks, organized by Lodging Associations, infant and child homes for boarding babies, whose parents are both dead, sections for children in "Parks of Culture and Rest," and rooms for the mother and the child at railway stations.

Our institutions for children besides being numerous are very flexible in their organization so as to meet the specific needs of different communities.

The most striking fact which has greatly influenced the nursery kindergarten work in the U.S.S.R. in 1936 was the "Decision of June 27 of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R." This new law is of paramount importance. It concerns the prohibition of abortions, the increase of material aid given to women at child-birth, the establishment of State aid to large families, the broadening of the network of maternity homes, and so on. This law provides for the increase of the number of nursery and pre-school institutions to an amazing extent as we may see from the following quotation from the new law. This quotation gives also the number of children enrolled in the existing creches and kindergartens.

It has been decided:

"To *double* by January 1, 1939, the existing network of nursery beds for children in the cities, State farms, workers' settlements and on the railways, increasing their total number to 800,000 beds (the number of cots in creches corresponds to the number of children enrolled).

To *double* by January 1, 1939, the existing network of nursery beds both in permanent and seasonal collective farm nurseries (creches) in rural localities, increasing the number of beds in permanent nurseries by 500,000 and in seasonal nurseries by four million beds.

To *triple* the functioning network of permanent kindergartens in cities, factory settlements, and on railways within

three years, bringing it up to one million places by January 1, 1939 (as against 700,000 places in the present network of kindergartens), and at State farms, plants, and institutions in village localities up to 300,000 places, as against 130,000 places in the present network."

The Government of the U.S.S.R. provided simultaneously in 1936 large sums of money (596,000 rubles) for the building of new obstetrical clinics, creches, milk-kitchens and kindergartens and 50,000 rubles for the training of the personnel.

This decision has at present, and will also have in the near future, a tremendous influence on educational work with parents and children.

The grant of the State even only for kindergartens is very great. For instance, in 1937 it reaches over a milliard of rubles only in cities, towns, workers' settlements, and district centres.

It is to be noted that the direction of all nursery kindergarten work belongs to the State and the whole work is an integral part of the building up of socialism.

England

During the last two years there has been a noticeable strengthening of public opinion in regard to the need for widespread provision of nursery schools. This is seen in the steady increase of correspondence, conference, and inquiry, as well as in the popular press and the public reports of the proceedings of Education Authorities all over the country.

This increase of intelligent concern has been accompanied by a gradual relaxation of restriction—on the part of the Central Authority, i.e., the Board of Education in London—on the opening of new nursery schools. The Annual Report of the English Board of Education published in 1936 states—"It is clear that additional nursery schools are desirable in many districts, particularly in urban areas where housing conditions

are poor, and in some of the new housing estates where the houses are occupied by families from slum areas that have been cleared."

In accordance with this policy the number of officially recognized nursery schools in England has now risen to 84 accommodating six or seven thousand children between two and five years of age, and plans under consideration should bring the number of nursery schools up to 130.

This indicates a slightly increased rate of progress, but it is not forgotten that the population of children between two and five years of age is one and three-quarter millions, and that nursery school nurture and education is seriously needed for at least a million of these.

The "Save the Children Fund" still works energetically at opening emergency nursery schools in the "Distressed Areas" where unemployment is at its worst. Ten nursery schools of this type, each accommodating 40 children have now been opened, and have received special financial assistance from the State.

A gradual increase in the opening of nursery classes for children between three and five years of age is taking place in our infants schools under many Education Authorities. These nursery classes are at present in a state of flux as regards their character and conditions. This is because few conditions are imposed, and while they are supposed to offer some of the advantages of a nursery school, they are recognized as a less expensive substitute varying widely from one another according to local desires and circumstances. Nursery classes are likely to increase as the child population decreases, and vacant classrooms become available for the purpose in our infants schools.

Side by side with this progress in the national provision of nursery schools and classes to ensure a sound foundation of health of mind and body for young children has proceeded the movement for psychological research into the nature and development of young children during the early years of childhood, and the establishment of child guidance clinics for the solution of individual problems in childhood. The distinguished

work in these respects of Dr. Moodie, Dr. Buhler, Dr. Susan Isaacs, Dr. Margaret Lowenfeld, and others are exerting an incalculably beneficial influence on all workers in the nursery school movement in England.

No less significant and encouraging is the tendency gradually becoming distinct to consider the nature and needs of the child between two and seven years of age (from the point of view of educational administration) as a single period. That is to extend the period of nursery school education beyond five years of age so as to cover the infants school years and eliminate the present break in the little child's experience near his fifth birthday. This tendency has been heralded experimentally by certain schools, notably the Princeville Nursery School in Bradford, Yorkshire, which receives children at the age of two and provides continuously the nurture and community life of the nursery school right through the infants school period, while giving full scope to the developing intelligence of the children up to seven years of age. These experiments are yielding promising results, and we look forward to further important developments in this direction.

The same goal is being indirectly approached on the one hand by progressive infants schools which are influenced by the desire to continue for their children the advantages of the nursery school, and on the other by progressive education authorities (notably in Willesden, Leicester and Leeds) which are gradually raising the standard of their nursery classes to that of the nursery school.

The work of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain, under the chairmanship of Miss Lillian de Lissa, has made considerable advance during the last two years. Its membership now is approximately 2500, and its branches in various large towns number twenty, of which two are in Wales, two in Scotland and one in Northern Ireland. It pursues its propaganda unremittingly through conferences and discussions, deputations to the Board of Education and the Local Education Authorities, the showing of films, and the distribution of literature. The Executive of the Association

is assisted by a Council of Superintendents of Nursery Schools, and a Council of Head Teachers of Infants Schools, both formed from members of the Association. These two Councils work through their own Committees, organize their own conferences, and render invaluable service to the aims of the Association by studying and dealing with the internal problems of nursery schools and classes.

The recent activities of the Nursery School Association have been mainly concerned with the following efforts, which have attained a measure of success and are being continued :

- 1) To secure that the needs of the child of pre-school age shall be adequately provided for in all the new housing areas.
- 2) To secure that wherever children under five are admitted to the school in nursery or "babies' classes," they shall receive as adequate nurture and education as is provided in nursery schools.
- 3) To promote the increase of nursery schools for children up to seven years of age, and the training of teachers to deal with this period continuously, and thus to forward the recognition of nursery school education as the foundation of the national system of education.
- 4) To publish pamphlets and memoranda relating to the above.

The following pamphlets are among the recent publications of the Association :

Nursery Schools and the Pre-School Child by Sir George Newman.

Nursery Schools—A Foundation for the National System of Education by Lillian de Lissa.

The Education of Children under Seven. [Conference Report for 1936.]

Nursery Schools in Relation to Slum Clearance and Re-Housing.

New Houses : New Schools : New Citizens. Lady Allan of Hurtwood.

Nursery Schools in Relation to Working Class Organi-

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zations. Grace Owen.

Between Babyhood and School Life. Grace Owen.

[By courtesy of the publishers of the Family Book. Messrs. Barker.]

Early Children. Dr. Susan Isaacs.

U. S. A.

The two terms, "nursery school" and "kindergarten," are used in the United States to designate educational programmes planned especially to guide the development of children from two to six years of age. The kindergarten is now accepted in most of the larger cities as the introductory unit of the public school. The nursery schools on the other hand are, for the most part, privately supported schools or are used as laboratories by teacher-training institutions and research centres for the study of child development. In addition there is a large number of temporary nursery schools operating as part of the Government's programme for young children of the unemployed and needy. Both programmes are founded on similar principles of child guidance.

Three current developments in these programmes for young children are concerned (1) with placing them in their relationship to the total school programme, (2) with making the proper schools available for a greater number of young children, and (3) with demonstrating new types of services through the WPA or "relief" nursery schools and programmes of parent education.

(1) The demands for an extension of the elementary school downwards to include younger children has come from two sources: *first*, from scientific studies that have emphasized the influence of environment and guidance in early childhood upon later learning ability, upon emotional control and social adjustment; and *second*, from the insistence of parents that they need help with the education of their children before

the customary school entrance age of six. Since education is a continuous process it is necessary to make sure that the activities in the pre-school programme lay foundations upon which later elementary education can build. Furthermore, since the nursery school is free from many of the traditions surrounding the elementary school it has both an opportunity and an obligation to contribute knowledge of child development resulting from research at the pre-school level.

The outstanding efforts to assure continuity in the educational programmes for different ages of children have recently been made in the States of New York and California. New York has prepared a series of curriculum guides for teachers of children from two to five years old and from six to nine years. These guides offer an interrelated programme of activities adapted to the progressive growth of children in the age group from two to nine years. The Commissioner of Education in California has appointed a committee representing the fields of mental and physical hygiene, adult and general education, and has charged the members to recommend a programme of effective guidance for children from two to eight years of age.

There has been added emphasis in local school systems upon closely relating the curriculum activities of the kindergarten and the primary grades. Many kindergarten activities are carried on in the primary grades to help make learning a happy and successful venture. The kindergarten in turn builds a readiness for learning to read and write on which the primary grades can build.

The large number of celebrations of the hundredth birthday of the kindergarten are serving to emphasize the values of pre-school education and to bring these values to the attention of readers of popular periodicals and newspapers as well as to the group of educational workers.

(2) To provide more opportunities for children to attend kindergartens and nursery schools, there has been a co-ordinated effort by interested agencies to replace many of the kindergartens eliminated as an economy measure during the economic depression and to make some of the "relief"

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nursery schools a permanent offering of the public school. To help make this possible there have been interpretations of existing State legislation and the introduction of new laws. Efforts have been made to remove limitations upon the size of the community in which kindergartens or nursery schools may be maintained and to assure financial support for the education of pre-school children from the same funds and under the same conditions as prevail for the distribution of public money for children enrolled in elementary and secondary schools.

(3) The WPA or "relief" nursery schools and parent education programmes have continued for the fourth year, serving approximately 50,000 children and 600,000 adults annually, all of whom either receive relief money or are in a similar income group. Both the nursery school and the present education programmes operate under the sponsorship of local public schools with the help of State-wide supervision.

One of the instances in which the WPA nursery schools have demonstrated the practicability of a programme previously considered advisable but difficult to administer, has been the employment of youth from 16 to 25 years of age. These boys and girls serve in a non-professional capacity and work under the immediate direction of the head nursery school teacher. An orientation course is given to initiate them into the procedures and the purposes of the daily programme in the nursery school. For some of these boys and girls the experience may lead to a future interest in the teaching profession or in some other phase of child guidance. For others, the experience may prove to be their major introduction to marriage and family life.

Parent education is an integral part of the nursery school, and it was in this way that the parent education aspect of the WPA adult education programme was started. Now, however, it has become part of many other programmes. Problems of family life serve as the content in lessons for adults just learning to read and also in classes for young men enrolled in the Civilian Conservation Corps camps. Through the several cooking, sewing, and service programmes of the

Women's Division of WPA, many classes for parents have been organized. Neighbourhood meetings have been developed where questions of family adjustments have broadened to include those of community life and to emphasize the importance of community co-operation and good citizenship. With the many questions arising from congested living conditions and from adjustments to lower incomes during economic difficulties, the parent education programme is helping stabilize family life. It is also helping to create a more general understanding of the influences of home environment upon the emotional and social stability of our citizens.

Ireland

The beginnings of nursery school work in Ireland were made in Belfast in 1928 when the Arellian Nursery School was opened by a voluntary committee, and in two years was moved into its own open-air building accommodating 40 children. The school was entirely supported by voluntary subscriptions, and until 1936 was the only nursery school in Ireland. In that year the McArthur Nursery School was opened by a voluntary committee in another district of Belfast and was also entirely dependent on voluntary support. With us, nursery schools are, as yet, concerned only with children of the working class.

In the autumn of 1936, in response to repeated appeals, the Minister of Education for Northern Ireland agreed to recognize nursery schools for the purpose of paying the salaries of superintendents in accordance with the scale of payment for elementary school teachers, at the same time making very adequate regulations regarding training of staff, number of children, building requirements; etc., that would be necessary.

About the same time the local education authority agreed to pay 2/3 of the interest sinking fund on capital expenditure

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approved by the authority incurred by nursery schools recognized by the Minister of Education. So far no maintenance grant is forthcoming from the L. E. A.

It is with the greatest pleasure that we record this recognition on the part of the education authorities after nine years of entirely voluntary effort. Nursery schools have now a definite place in the educational system of Northern Ireland, and it means a great deal to have the position of superintendents assured as regards payment, increments, and pension, and that satisfactory regulations have been made.

It may be of interest to note that these two first nursery schools were started and are managed by the Past Pupils' Association of two secondary schools in Belfast.

Plans for the extension of the Arellian Nursery School (which has a waiting list of some 70 children) are in hand, and the MacArthur Nursery School soon hopes to embark on a building scheme. A third nursery school is almost in being, a scheme to enable certain trust money to be used for that purpose is in course of preparation. Three nursery schools are not nearly adequate for an industrial centre such as Belfast with a population of some 450,000. We hope very much that further schools will be started as a result of official assistance.

In the Irish Free State there has not been the same development. There is, however, a definite increase of interest in Dublin on the part of individuals, and it is hoped that something practical will soon result. It is almost unnecessary to note that the result of nursery school work in Belfast, as elsewhere, is most gratifying. The careful medical and dental inspection bears good results. Teachers in public elementary schools, who have former nursery school pupils in their classes, remark on the self-reliance, good discipline, and ability to avail themselves of the educational facilities of these children.

A feeling of close friendship has been established between the children, their homes, and the nursery school, and we believe this to be one of the most important aspects of nursery school work.

Scotland

During the past biennium there has been some advance made in Scotland with regard to the provision of nursery schools, though the rate of progress is not nearly so rapid as we should like it to be.

The number of "recognized" nursery schools has increased to 26. Of these, only 3 are conducted by Education Committees, but 17 of the others are aided by grants from the local authorities. Edinburgh leads the list with 15 out of the 26. There are in addition 8 nursery classes (6 in Glasgow and 2 in Renfrew) attached to elementary schools.

Since I submitted my Report at Oxford, voluntary committees have established nursery schools in Methil (a mining district), in Elgin (a residential country town), and in Stranraer (a small seaport).

Teachers continue to demonstrate their faith in the value of nursery schools by contributing liberally to the maintenance of most of the voluntary ones, as well as by serving on the committees responsible for their management.

The nursery school movement in this country has received considerable impetus by reason of the inclusion of nursery schools in the programme put by the Government before the electors at the last General Election, and the prominence given to the subject in a subsequent circular from the Scottish Education Department. The value of nursery schools and the need for them was also emphasized strongly, in the valuable report of the Committee on "Scottish Health Service" published in 1936.

I am glad that the Scottish Education Department have, in their circular, come down definitely on the side of nursery schools, for we, in Scotland, do not consider that nursery classes attached to ordinary schools constitute adequate provision for the pre-school child.

There are some gratifying signs of progress on the

horm at the moment. The Aberdeen Education Committee have laid the foundation stone of a nursery school which they hope to open in June of this year. A Nursery School Association has been formed in Falkirk, and it has raised sufficient money to proceed with the erection of a voluntary nursery school, which it is hoped will encourage the Education Committee to establish others. There are welcome rumours that Glasgow intends to take a big forward step soon; in the meantime they have secured twenty teachers with infants' department experience to undergo a course of training, leading to a nursery school qualification, at the Glasgow Provincial Training College for Teachers.

Mention must also be made of the increasing number of "Toddlers' Playroom" which are open to pre-school children for two or three hours daily in the forenoons, and which, though not providing all the benefits of a nursery school, are a boon to little children and busy mothers in over-crowded districts of the large cities. These are conducted under the auspices of Child Welfare Committees with the aid of voluntary subscriptions.

Pretoria, Union of South Africa

The nursery school movement has made most remarkable progress in Pretoria during the past year. For years there had been but one school, the Pretoria Nursery School, run in the poorer section of the town and financed largely out of a municipal grant. Towards the end of last year, however, the Pretoria Parents' Association and the Child Welfare Society made it possible to open another centre partly for the benefit of the pre-school children in the Child Welfare Shelter but also for a limited number of outside children. This new school was duly opened at the beginning of the year and is now being run as an all-day school. An

experienced teacher was brought out from England to take charge of the new venture and is assisted by a South African teacher with overseas training.

The year just past also saw the opening of the first fee-paying school, the Eastern Suburbs Nursery School, at the opposite end of the city. Negotiations with the Technical College and the University with the object of having them sponsor the school having failed, a committee of parents decided to launch forth on its own. A highly experienced graduate of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, was brought out and is similarly assisted by a South African with overseas training. From a modest beginning, the school has shown growth, the maximum enrolment having had to be increased on several occasions, while a beginning has now been made with a waiting list.

As accredited institutions, all these schools obtain a modest grant from the Government. A Commission is at present inquiring into the whole question of education in the Transvaal and the necessary representations have been made with the object of inducing the Government to play a more active part in the nursery school development in the Transvaal.

Australia

Since the last Conference at Oxford in August, 1935, we are pleased to be able to report a steady progress in pre-school education in Australia.

The work in the kindergarten section is moving steadily forward in all of the six States of the Commonwealth.

A very informative kindergarten conference sponsored by the Free Kindergarten Union of South Australia was held in Adelaide, South Australia, in September, 1936. Papers by representatives from the various States dealing with phases of kindergarten work were read and discussed. One

of the resolutions passed at this conference was as follows:

"That the Kindergarten Union of South Australia asks for the support of the visiting delegates in a request to the Government for a special grant to enable us to establish free nursery schools in connection with our work."

The idea of extending pre-school education is growing more and more as people realize the importance of early child guidance. During the past year rapid strides have been made along these lines by the establishment in two more States (New South Wales and South Australia) of nursery schools. These nursery schools in both cases are part of the work of the kindergarten movements in the respective States.

The Report from New South Wales tells of the establishment of two nursery schools, and lectures to kindergarten graduates by a member of the Kindergarten Training College Staff who has just returned from abroad after making a special study of child development for two and a half years. There is also the prospect of perhaps a nursery school training in that State for students in the near future. South Australia reports the building and equipping of a nursery school with a nursery graduate from the Melbourne Kindergarten Training College in charge.

As yet none of the other States have been able to establish nursery schools. The task of building and equipping, to say nothing of the upkeep, of a nursery school in any of the States is no easy matter. As they are practically all dependent on private donations, and as the idea of early child guidance work is new, it is very often a question of arousing public interest and sympathy before any advance can be made.

The Free Kindergarten Union of Victoria is very fortunate in having as Head of their Training College for 1937 Miss Christine Heinig, of Columbia University, U.S.A. Numerous projects for the widening of the Union's activities in pre-school education are already afoot, and in the next Report it is hoped to give a more detailed report of this work.

The Republic of El Salvador

There are sixteen kindergartens in the Republic of El Salvador, all of them of Froebelian type, with a tendency to the training of the senses.

On account of financial limitations they function annexed to the primary schools, except the one at the Normal School for Teachers, "República de España," which is *run* in its own special building. This one consists of three sections, including children, four and six years inclusive, so as to lead *them* up to the primary studies that begin towards their seventh year.

The classes are varied; they develop under the following plan.

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Greetings | 6. Computation (Number Work) |
| 2. Health Inspection | 7. Gifts |
| 3. Conversation | 8. Reading |
| 4. Songs and Games | 9. Occupations |
| 5. Sensory | 10. Farewell |

There is a great willingness on the part of the teachers as well as of the Government, to establish kindergartens following the "decrolyanos" principles. The Montessori type is not accepted here. Nobody seems to agree with it. Disregarding the Froebelian orientation of the established kindergartens there is a tendency toward modern tools in progressive education.

When children are enrolled they are graded by means of infantile tests. We use Buhler's and Hetzer's tests. There is a definite maternal protection to beginners. The child is carefully followed in his biological development, with a tendency to self-education.

Living their own lives, these children during the period when they are so sensible, all the training and guidance given to them are suggested, and they are saturated with music and songs. In order to satisfy their physical unrest, all these teachings are combined with various games. We try to

socialize their classes, and all their education is integral. Freedom and spontaneity are allowed, and with motherly love, good habits are formed.

The educative material and the equipment are appropriate to the training and size of the children.

The teachers are specialists in the field and they only work during the morning. Their salary is the same as the salary obtained by the teachers in the primary schools, and the latter work during the whole day. (About forty dollars each month.)

The school authorities and teachers realize that pre-school education is the fundamental base of primary education, and it is possible that in a short time it will be spread all over the country.

Also, people are getting conscious of the need of all-day pre-school classes so as to have a place for the working mothers, who work in factories, to leave their children early in the morning and get them back in the afternoon, when they return. Maybe we can organize these schools pretty soon as a social educative service.

Panel Discussion on Fundamental Needs of Young Children Everywhere and How the School Can Meet Them

Discussion Leader: Miss Alice G. Thorn

Miss Thorn (U S A.):

"What can we do about over-dependence of Oriental children? Is there any way that we can help the parents of children in order to prepare them for school experience?"

One of the things most important to the spiritual health of school children is the need for an environment of confidence and security. In Japan many parents and grandparents resort to the use of the fear motive in securing obedience. How can we help both parents and children in this respect?"

A Foreign Visitor :

"I can't speak about the Oriental problem but we do have the same conditions today in New York City where the parents interfere, as we may say, too much in child education. They haven't the confidence to hand them over to the classroom—to the class teacher. Therefore, we think that a very vital part of childhood education is the education of the parents. We have organizations, parent-teacher organizations, and we try to get over this vital fact that there should not be too much of the parents in the classroom environment. And that is one of the ways in which we attack the problem"

Mrs Tomiko Kora (Japan):

"I may mention in a brief statement that mothers in Japan are traditionally very much concerned with the home education of children, especially with the inculcation of self-control and obedience. Maybe our mothers and fathers have not been socialized enough not to use fear as a motivation for obedience. But the day has come when we have experimental stations such as those sponsored by the endowment called "Ai-iku-kai." We already have some experimental kindergartens, and there we see how, by the help of specialists, such as Professor Kurahashi and others, children grow better when fear motives are eliminated. Our home education has undergone a great change in the past twenty years or so, and is now quite different from what it used to be."

Miss K. F. Fanning (U.S.A.):

"I think the answer to this problem is contained in the education of the child in dependence upon God. This need

not be confined to Christianity. We speak of our Father in Heaven Japanese Buddhists and Shintoists speak of "Kam-sama" or God. The following story, which is known to many of you here and can be duplicated in many instances, is an illustration of what I mean. A little child was sent upstairs to get a book for his father. The older brother was afraid to go because it was night and dark and there was no one upstairs. A little kindergarten child said, "I will go." And when he went and brought the book back the others were much surprised and commended him greatly for doing it. And he said, "But I was not afraid. God was with me." That is the kind of thing which is taught in the kindergarten where religious education goes hand in hand with secular education. There the children are taught that God *is* with us in all that we do. To me it is impossible to separate these two forms of education."

Miss Lois Lehman (Japan):

"I'd like to take up this problem from a different angle. It's not only a parent educational problem but a maidservant problem. The children with whom I am connected are largely entrusted to maidservants. We haven't done as much as we want to do but we would like to have more classes for these maids, as these facilities are greatly needed. I know of a great many people who are having such classes to help the children to become more independent, and there is some progress along this line."

Miss Margaret Hester (Japan):

"The delegate from the Philippines has told us of the great difficulty of having the parents and the maids coming to kindergarten with the children in the beginning. But we have tried in Nara to go back of that, and instead of waiting until the children enter kindergarten, to prepare and lead up to their entering by a real planned programme of building up more friendly contacts with the children—with the younger children—before they are old enough for kindergarten, as well

as with the parents and the maids who come with the older children. Just to save time I will briefly mention a few of the steps which we have tried to follow. First of all, we are encouraging, instead of discouraging, the bringing of the younger children when a parent comes with the child to kindergarten in the morning. And next, we take notice of these younger ones particularly, learning their names and their ages and greeting them whenever they happen to come. And third, we let them stay for a little while with the mother or the nurse when the other children are playing in the yard. They stay and play a little before they go home. Fourth, we occasionally suggest their coming into kindergarten just for a little while if the size of the room and the nature of the programme permit. We try to make these first contacts as happy as possible, emphasizing the joy of doing their work, with the parent or the nurse in the background. At first there is no thought or fear of separation, and thus the attention can be given whole-heartedly to enjoying the experience. Fifth, we foster in the children of the kindergarten an attitude of welcome toward all visitors, with the emphasis on doing what we can to make them feel at home. So when younger brothers and sisters come, the older brothers and sisters help to take charge of them and make them feel welcome. Sometimes we let the little ones join in for a few minutes. I see a little three-year-old child sit down with the greatest joy to use some of the clay or do something that his brother or sister is doing. Sixth, where we have a kindergarten clinic once a month, we encourage bringing the younger children, at first just to accompany the mother and the older child. Later on, when they are a little used to the surroundings the doctor examines these children, too, so that when they actually enter kindergarten and come to the clinic once a month there is no fear of the doctor and they are perfectly ready to share the experiences that they have seen their older brothers and sisters having. And seventh, before the child enters kindergarten we set a special time on some free afternoon and invite certain small groups of children. The teacher feels freer at this time to give them more attention. Parents do

start educating their children at home. But I wish the fathers would be more interested in this matter. So we hold a fathers' meeting about once a semester, but only 10 or 15 fathers out of 60 or 70 homes attend it. I think, however, even those fathers who don't come to kindergarten meetings are really influenced by what we do in our kindergarten and make their children take care of themselves. Another thing I should like to mention is this: if we ask fathers and mothers to visit our kindergarten very often and if they see what we are doing, I think they will realize that their children can do their own tasks themselves. Then, I think the parents will encourage their children to take care of themselves."

An American Visitor :

"May I say just a word? In our school in America, we have a day that is known as Fathers' Day. We have the same problem that you have here in regard to nurses. In order to make the parents interested in what we are doing we have such a day in our school. It falls on a national holiday, i.e., Lincoln's Birthday. On that day, though the offices downtown are closed, the schools are open, and so in our school we invite the fathers on that day. They come to school and sit down with the children, and often when I was telling a story to kindergarten children, as many as ten fathers were listening to the story or watching the children singing a song. Once we had a father who was—oh, over six feet. He came to the gymnasium where we were dancing and he danced around with a four-year-old child who came just about to his knee. He was a very dignified, serious kind of a father but one who felt his responsibilities tremendously, so when it even came to the point of dancing, where most men would have felt self-conscious, he tripped around with a child who came hardly—well, just about up to his knees. That's a problem we in America have, just as you do in Japan. Now I'm sure there are more contributions that would be helpful. I see here so many people who I know would contribute discussions to this symposium."

Miss Sarah Field (Japan):

"Surely this question of the over-dependence of the small child is not an Oriental problem only, but I do feel that it is peculiarly Oriental. We feel that it is chiefly an emotional adjustment in the home that makes for this over-dependence of the child. Those of us who know Japan well will see that the child here is very close to the mother, often on the mother's back in the home. And this emotional contact with the home, especially with the mother, makes it difficult to introduce that child into the freer, self-dependent situation that he meets in kindergarten. The customs and the habits build over-dependence in our little children. We have met the problem, as has been said, through the parents' meetings, especially the mothers' meetings. But an individual conference has been our most effective means. The very first day the child enters kindergarten, the mother is interviewed and asked about the child's habits at home: Does he sleep alone?—Is she still nursing? In fact, all kinds of things are asked—his play habits, his playmates, etc. So at kindergarten we can better understand the child and his problems that first week or so. After the mother and the teacher have had their conference, the teacher is able to make suggestions, and we get the co-operation of the home in changing these emotional and social adjustments there and in initiating the child more easily into better play relationships and work relationships. There are individual conferences with the child when there is a problem that he himself must tackle, because no matter how much the mother may want to change things, unless the child wants to do so, she herself cannot. On the other hand, no matter how much the child wants to change a situation, often the mother isn't willing, so we need the co-operation of both child and mother, for we find that through these methods this over-dependence is gradually corrected."

Mrs. Kyo Kiuchi (interpreted by Mrs. K...):

"I understand the question asked just now whether

there may not be some gap between kindergarten training and primary school regimentation. Japanese primary schools have lately changed and some of the children now attend school directly from the home without entering kindergarten. Therefore, in a primary school we allow children two years to live a life similar to home environment. Primary schools do not mind children going out of the classroom or running about the school, and they want children to play freely and then to live their own life so that individuals may grow. Unfortunately, Japanese public schools cannot afford to have many more teachers. For financial reasons we let one teacher take care of 60, 70, or sometimes even 80 children, but we cannot profit much in the classroom. We let them play for two or three years, and then gradually let them adjust themselves to school life and social environment. In that way they can develop their own interest and personality. Schools usually appreciate such freedom of atmosphere as is found in the kindergarten.

Miss Elizabeth Upton (Japan):

"I think one of the greatest needs of little children is friends. In many families they keep their little ones at home, thinking that they are doing their very best for them. When the children, however, go to kindergarten and play with other children, many of those troubles that we have been talking about will be cured. In my "shōgakkō," i.e., primary school—I live in the country—there's one child that has finished his second year and his mother still has to come with him every day and sit in the room. And we had a little boy come to kindergarten. He had not played at all with other children, and he cried every day practically for two years, at least for a few minutes every day, but in the end he got through school without tears. So we felt that we really had helped him. Having little playmates is a great thing."

(Miss Upton, being asked to clarify her point, gave a concrete example of a child who had been 'emotionally starved,' that is, starved for affection because the mother, who had an unhappy life, failed to give the child enough affection.

That child, she said, was backward in playing with the other kindergarten children.)

Miss Thorn :

"We all feel the need for more exact information concerning the child's growth and development during the period from 2 to 7.

Many of us realize that many studies that are in progress are to be of inestimable value to teachers and mothers, if we can only have that information available. Now America is engaged in a tremendous amount of research, but the problem in America is—I'm speaking from the point of view of the classroom teacher—how are we going to make such research available and practical to the ordinary classroom teachers? Many of these reports are presented in such technical or scientific terms that they have no connection with the public schools, nor do they get into the current practice of these schools. So one of the questions which was handed in was this: How much research is being done here and how is this research to be made available? We have the same problem in America where a tremendous amount of research is going on.

An interesting piece of research that has just been more or less concluded was a nursery school which was part of a research centre conducted under the auspices of the Rockefeller Foundation over a period of ten years. Here is one of their interesting bits of procedure which you may be interested in. The teacher would ask—if she knew of any difficulties with a child—the head of the research centre if she couldn't have exact information about that particular child. Now what she meant was—Could that child be discussed in the staff meeting of all the members of the research centre? Every week they had a staff meeting and reports were made on two particular children at a time. And this is what happened. They would gather together all the reports from every one who had to do with the child. For instance, the nutritionist would say what she knew about that child and his attitude toward food. The psychiatrist, the psy-

chologist, the nurse, the doctor, the parents, and the teacher—all of those people who knew the child from those many angles—would contribute information in a staff meeting. Imagine what a fortunate teacher that was to be able to make such research available; and imagine, on the other hand, how fortunate those research people were to know the teacher's attitude toward that child, because, after all, the person who really knows the child most intimately is the teacher herself. Now I would like to conclude the meeting by asking Mrs. Kora if she would tell us about any research of the type that is undoubtedly going on in Japan and what is being done to make it available and how far it is progressing."

Mrs. Kora :

"May I report to you, Miss Thorn, and friends, that in Japan psychologists have been persuaded to co-operate with psychiatrists, nutritionists, teachers, parents, nurses, and social workers. To set standards of development or maturity has been the topic for many years of our experimentation and research. The most reliable and scientific data came out from the Departments of Medicine of the Imperial Universities and other medical centres or pediatric departments. The most difficult research that psychologists have been conducting for the past twenty years is the mental development of children. Of course, we have surveys of intelligence of all school children of Tokyo, uptown and downtown, and also of other cities and various provinces. But the mental tests had not, for a long time, come down to the kindergarten or pre-school ages. In the last ten years, however, psychological research has come down to the date of children's birth. Then, from there we are using Terman and national intelligence standards and trying to examine how our Japanese children stand in such scales. I may report my own work which I started some ten years ago in the Kyushu Imperial University. I have collected a record of over 5,000 children who came to the Imperial University every year at the children's contest

for good health and development. I have arranged them in many stages along the lines of intelligence, emotion, sociability, and also of motor and habit formation. I can give you a general sketch of maturity stages along those several lines. Though the materials are formulated into stages according to the ages of development, we have to have some theory to explain how and why children mature at such and such a period. That is a difficult problem. Therefore, looking over materials from abroad—Europe and America—we are examining how far our Japanese children come up to such standards of development and habit formation. I must confess that Japanese children differ greatly, e.g., much greater in individual difference in formation of habits. Our method of home education or nursing has not been standardized. In fact, average homes have no knowledge of bringing up children to certain standards, i. e., 2 years, 3 years, 4 years, 5 years, 6 years, 7 years, etc. Therefore, it is our task now to get the co-operation of the kindergarten workers and also the parents of children, asking them to pool their observations and other material to verify our studies of 5,000 or 8,000 children. We must elevate the childhood education in our homes and kindergartens to meet, at least, the average standards of habit formation and maturity."

Visits to Kindergartens

Thursday, 5th August

- A. Kindergarten in connection with Tokiwa Elementary School. (Newly built in 1936.)
Excellent rooms, equipment, and roof playground.
Fee: ¥ 3.00 a month.
- B. Bancho Kindergarten. (Municipal institution.)
Good garden and playground, excellent equipment, and wading pool. Fee: ¥ 2.50 a month.
- C. Tokyo Kindergarten Training School. (Managed by Miss Kiku Ishihara.)
Attractive building and equipment.

Professor S. Kurahashi, of Tokyo Higher Normal School for Women, invited all delegates to luncheon to be held at Alumni House, Tokyo Higher Normal School for Women. One hundred delegates attended.

Contributed Paper

Pre-School Education in Poland

Polish Organization Committee

From the very first moment the Polish State had recovered its independence, our educational authorities understood the fact that, in order to raise the level of the school, it was necessary that education should begin earlier than at elementary school, so that there should be a foundation for developing and preparing the child and "the soil of the soul should be tilled and fertilized so as to imbibe easily Polish instruction." (Cieszkowski.)

The pre-schools, formerly called "infant schools," existed in Poland since 1840. The first "infant school" was founded by the Warsaw Benevolent Society and from that time their number constantly increased; faster in the capital, more slowly in the provinces. The organizer and director of the first infant school of the Warsaw Benevolent Society, Nowosielski, writes as follows in 1840 about the task of the infant school. "The infant school is not a school but an educational home. It ought to take the place of or support initial home education. In the infant school, amidst free and innocent gaiety only religious and moral feelings are inoculated into childish hearts by means of mildness. By teaching in the form of pleasant amusement the mental faculties are awakened. Different easy practical handwork introduces children to work. Children are kept in good health by means of various physical exercises and frequent movement in the fresh air of the garden."

In spite of such views concerning the aims of the infant school, the activities of these institutions gradually changed their character. Under the relentless persecution of the Polish school by the partitioning powers, refuge was sought by creating institutions called "infant schools" which, being

tolerated by the occupants, could be made use of for the secret instruction of much older children in their own language and history.

Less attention was paid to children of the infant school age in these institutions where only their physical well-being was cared for, or else instruction was begun too early.

Nevertheless we can note in Poland a number of publications written in those times, or earlier, by eminent personalities of the pedagogical and medical world, demanding the opening of educative establishments for children in pre-school age as an indispensable condition for the prosperity of the primary school and as the basis for a correct development and education of the young generation. In the first half of the nineteenth century, J. Sniadecki (*Observations on the Physical Training of Children*), B. Trentowski (*Chowanna* Part I, *Nepiódica*), and A. Cieszkowski (*On Rural Infant Schools*) wrote on the education of children of the infant school age, showing astonishing depth of insight and knowledge of the nature and needs of the child. "The founding of schools without a preliminary preparation of the children who are to frequent it is really putting the cart before the horse. Let us lower education by one whole period of human life and we shall raise humanity to a higher condition. Let us teach children to live, before teaching them to read," says Cieszkowski. This author asks the State to give support and protection to the infant school, laying the burden of maintenance on the communes and on social institutions. He also demands medical supervision in the infant schools, supplementary feeding, a suitable programme in which moral, civic, esthetic and physical education should be taken into consideration with the complete application of contemporary methods and means.

As was mentioned above, the political condition of the country did not allow the establishment of pre-school education according to these principles. Only a small number of pre-school institutions preserved the type of the "pre-school." During the Great War, the number of infant schools increased. Not only did social organizations take part in it, but also

local territorial governments. But the exceptionally hard conditions of existence of the population altered again the character of the "infant school." The necessity of nourishing, clothing, and warming the children occupied the first place. Only after the end of the war, when Poland recovered her independence, could infant education enter upon new paths, ridding itself of all accessory influences and tasks. A great contribution to the creation of proper opinion as to what infant school education ought to be was given in full measure by the Society for Infant Education, acting in the former Russian provinces, which had begun its activities in 1903. In Lwow, the Pedagogical Society had a great influence in enlightening public opinion on the importance of the infant school. The value of these organizations and their influence on questions of infant school education brought about the creation of a special section devoted to pre-school problems at the All-Polish Congress of teachers, held in Warsaw in 1919. The work of this section met with the entire approval of the Congress and became the foundation of the first pre-school programme for the educational authorities of the State.

The enormous efforts that were necessary for bringing into existence compulsory primary instruction did not allow the authorities to establish a larger number of infant schools. They limited themselves to organizing a certain number of institutions which were to serve as models for local boards, social and private institutions. In fact, the Ministry awaited the initiative of the community in this respect, reserving only for itself the chief supervision and direction by means of school inspectors of primary schools, including questions of the infant schooling in one of its departments, nominating a general inspectress of these schools and taking into hand the question of training a teaching staff for the infant school by establishing seminaries for infant school teachers. Infant school legislation was given a permanent foundation in 1932. The infant school was introduced into the "Laws for the Constitution of Schools" issued March 11, 1932, fixing its plan and significance in the entire organization of teaching and education. The "Law for Private Schools and Educational

and Training Institutes" also enacted on March 11, 1932, contains rules regulating the working of these schools, including infant schools, in every respect. It defines the rights and duties of the patrons, head mistress and teachers. A strict control was established which is carried out by elementary school authorities. The law has officially adopted the name "pre-school," instead of "infant school." The name "pre-school" imparts a uniformly democratic title and character to these institutions.

The pre-school legislation also proceeded to qualify and organize State infant school teachers by a special regulation and fixed the amount of their salaries and their hours of work, taking again as a basis the regulations binding for primary schools.

Hitherto the pre-school activity of territorial local boards was voluntary. Silesia takes the first place, among towns, Warsaw; and among districts, the C \acute{z} stochowa district. In 1934 local board pre-schools constituted 1/3 of the general number of pre-schools in Poland.

Since 1926 women's organizations, such as "The Military Family," "The Police Family," The Civil Service, Railway, Post Office Women's Organizations, the Women's Union of Civic Service, the Circles of Rural Housewives and others take a large share in the development of pre-school education.

For a long time women's religious congregations have run pre-schools. Before the war their activities in this respect were particularly widespread in Southern Poland.

Within the last years, greater attention has been paid to the importance of the pre-school in the country. Formerly, before the war, rural pre-schools were organized by the landowners in their country houses; these have been partially transferred to the rural communes. Women's social organizations also take a large share in this work. In 1923, out of a total number of 1752 pre-schools, the rural districts had 614 pre-schools; in 1934 out of a total number of 1859 pre-schools, the rural districts had 668.

The development of pre-schools in Poland may by represented numerically as follows:

Pre-School and Kindergarten Section

Year	In Warsaw	In Poland	Number of Children
1913	30	100	—
1921	(about) 100	631	—
1927	75	1185	66,603
1928	92	1440	83,912
1933	121	1752	93,664
1934	129	1859	97,204

The pre-schools consist chiefly of two divisions: the first division accepts children at the age of 3 and 4, the second, children of 5 to 6. There exist also a number of pre-schools in which children are grouped according to their momentary interest type of institution approaching the "Maison des Petits" in Geneva and the pre-school of Dr. Decroly in Brussels. In general the methods applied in the present pre-schools in Poland take into consideration the modern state of child knowledge, its individuality, instincts, interests, and physical strength, and aim at creating conditions contributing to bring up active and independent human beings who take part in a constructive way in building up social life, imparting it his or her individual values.

In accordance with these principles, the pre-school disposes of a store of scientific apparatus to exercise the senses, speech, observation, orientation, numerical exercises and so on, requisites for physical exercises, games, and amusements and it supplies arrangements which, being accommodated to the size and physical strength of the child, make it possible for it to acquire mental and practical knowledge befitting its age.

Much attention is paid to physical training, including personal hygiene, physical exercises, supplementary feeding, games in the fresh air, and medical control of the physical development of the children. Attentive care is given to spiritual education, religious, moral, and esthetic development, as well as singing, musicalness, dance, rhythm, drawing, and modelling. These last subjects serve as means of expression of the inward experiences of the child and are of great value. All these tasks demand special knowledge and special

conditions, outstepping the possibility and preparation of the average mother whom often life compels to spend a large part of the day outside home, away from her children. While helping the family in bringing up the child, the pre-school does not estrange it from home, but on the contrary aims at strengthening family ties, modelling its conception of education on the family hearts. This influence is attained, not only by direct contact with individual mothers and fathers, but also in great measure by the organization at the pre-schools of "circles of parents" which co-operate with the pre-school, and work for it, helping the poorest children, organizing supplementary feeding, colonies, celebrations, excursions, etc. This co-operation constitutes an excellent training of the parents in social activities, and is very efficient in spreading a good influence over individual families.

The training of women teachers in special institutions existed in Poland before the war but, for political reasons, their work was partly of a conspiratory nature. At present there exist 8 State training colleges for pre-school teachers. Among these, the Warsaw Training College run from 1905 by the Society for Pre-School Education was raised to the level of a State institution already in 1919. There are 12 private pre-school training colleges in all Poland. In one of them instruction is given in German, in the other in Hebrew.

The programme of studies and methods of teaching in the seminaries for pre-school teachers aim at forming a type of active women citizens, whose general knowledge and special capabilities and love for their work allow them to pursue their professional work with ever increasing knowledge and efficiency. The pupils of the training colleges give lessons in elementary schools depending on the college in order to practise their acquired knowledge of child training, and they watch over and control the children's state of health under the direction of a school doctor and in children's hospitals. Till now the training colleges have accepted candidates with certificates from at least a 7-class primary school after a careful examination both as regards health and

general and special abilities. Since 1929 the course at the training college lasts three years. The law concerning the school constitution of March 11, 1932, foresees a new structure and programme for pre-school training institutions, prolonging the duration of instruction from three to four years, but with the possibility of accepting candidates to the first course after 6 years of primary school only. In addition to this the law introduces a special type of lyceum for pre-school teachers which will constitute a continuation of the training college instruction and pave the way to higher pedagogical studies at the university. This measure will greatly improve the social position of the pre-school teachers and raise the pre-school to an appropriately high level. The law also foresees a supplementary training of teachers already working at special courses organized by the State or by teachers' pedagogical and social organizations. These courses have been held for some years with good results. Exhibitions of pre-school work constitute efficient educative factors, not only for the women teachers, but also for many people outside the school. These exhibitions are arranged, on a larger or smaller scale by more important pre-school associations, for instance, in Warsaw, Łódź, and Lwow, and by training colleges for pre-school teachers, especially by State schools.

Two periodicals specially devoted to educational problems of pre-school education are being published in Poland. The *Pre-School Education*, the organ of the Society for Pre-School Education, exists since 1925 and the *Pre-School*, a publication of the Pre-School Section of the Union of Polish Teachers, has appeared since 1933.

Pre-school literature in Poland possesses a number of works on pedagogy and methods. In 1933 the Ministry of Education published a manual entitled *Advice and Suggestions for Teachers in Pre-Schools*. This book embracing the entire problem of life in the pre-school constitutes Fascicule No. 2 of *Advices on Problems of Teaching and Education*, 1933, a regular publication of the Ministry of Education.

Special premises for pre-school are now beginning to be built all over the country. In view of this fact the Ministry

Pre-School and Kindergarten Section

of Education has issued a new fascicule entitled *The Pre-School, Its Grounds and Arrangement of Rooms*. This number includes a detailed study of the problem with descriptions and drawings.

RURAL EDUCATION SECTION

*Chairman: Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce, Bryn Llewelyn,
Llanfair, Welshpool, Wales, Great Britain.*

*Secretary. Dr. William McKinley Robinson,
Director, Department of Rural Education, Western
State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan,
U. S. A.*

*Co-operating Member: Dr. Kikanji Sato, Dean, Faculty
of Agriculture, Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo,
Japan.*

Place of Meeting: Room No. 7.

First Session Tuesday, 3rd August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)

Second Session Wednesday, 4th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)

First Session

Opening Address of the Chairman

"On behalf of the World Federation, I wish to extend a very hearty welcome to all of you who are interested in rural education and in rural life. I have been Chairman of this Section for the last ten years, and I have seen a great

Rural Education Section



Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce
Chairman



Dr. William McKinley Robinson
Secretary



Dr. Kwanji Sato
Co-operating Member



Miss J. A. Callard
(See P. 246)



Mr. James McQueen
(See P. 269)



Dr. R. L. Bunting
(See P. 282)



Rural Education Section in Session

number of meetings held on behalf of rural education. To my mind, in surveying the field of education all over the world, I find that educationists realize one thing especially, that we must pay attention to the rural education problem. Now, I feel this morning as one of you. I'm not an Englishman. I belong to a very small nation which preserves its language and its customs very tenaciously indeed, and which is not going to let that language and those customs go. I'm referring now to the Welsh nation. I am one of that little nation called the Welsh people, and I quite realize that some of you today coming from various parts of the world find a difficulty in understanding the language which is used here in these meetings, but we shall do our best. We have on the platform very able gentlemen from Japan who are able to translate and to explain anything which may require explanation, and I hope that everyone of you at the end of this morning's addresses will ask questions or take part in the discussion of the papers which will be read here today.

I notice that I'm listed on the programme to speak on the "Twentieth Century Problems in Rural Education." I have been a rural teacher practically all my life. I have represented the teachers of England and Wales on rural Government commissions, and I've also been Chairman of the Rural Committee of the National Union of Teachers for the last fourteen years, so I have a knowledge of the problems which we are discussing today.

The first thing that occurred to me when I read the title of the address was this: What is the future of education? And in asking that question, you have to ask another. What is the future of the world's empires and of civilization itself? Their fates are interwoven. The nation itself carries on by a certain current of civilization. Civilization itself is like fate. It moves irresistibly. It is for us to understand its meaning, to mold it, or to suffer. Life itself is like a fabric, of which education is the colour, the design, the variety. The growing complexity of civilization enforced on us by the outcome of our energies, skill and inventiveness, social and economic adjustments, places a heavier demand on our intel-

ligence and our social consciousness in order to keep pace with the demands made on us. And this, ladies and gentlemen, we must realize. We must keep the pace or pay the penalty; that is, we must push forward the call of education or else we shall be drifting backwards to destruction. We stand or fall by our intelligence, our moral outlook, our power of co-operation, our power of correctly interpreting and anticipating future needs. That is the main function of education which makes us the growing power for good in the world, just as ignorance and prejudice are the harbingers of the powers of evil. So when we speak of the future of education, we speak of the greatest potential power in the world, namely enlightenment, the main element of national preservation. Education is still in the experimental stage trying to find its feet. Dealing with human beings, its effects pass slowly into social currents. It is not like the evolution of a locomotive, which has taken nearly a hundred years to arrive at its present stage of perfection. It is the case of successive generations of human beings, of infinite and diverse powers and capabilities, each taking up the task of acquiring the necessary knowledge to face life satisfactorily under conditions which grow more complex with each succeeding generation. It is the task of each generation, plus the necessary increase of knowledge over that of the preceding generation, to meet the new and added needs of the nation and civilization itself. That is why educational facilities and opportunities can never be confined to a select class. The clever people in a select class of a nation can only add to the nation's stock of advantage just to the extent that the great mass of sufficiently well-educated people respond to their lead. This applies to all phases of life whether intellectual, moral, spiritual or economic. The difficulties of the statesman, the social reformer, the moral regenerator, the spiritual leader are often misunderstood and misinterpreted not so much from prejudice as from ignorance arising from lack of education. The nation can only be led in the upward plains of civilization if it both knows and understands, and the task of education is not only to point to the top but to

clear the way. That is why education can never be divorced from its social, moral, spiritual and economic implications.

The future of rural education depends on the co-operative efforts of teachers, parents and administrators. To do this, it is necessary, first, that a knowledge of present deficiencies should be well-known; second, the future needs should be fully appreciated; and, third, persistent pressure should be used to accomplish reforms.

The first point I raised was: What are the present deficiencies? Well, we in our various countries have expert knowledge on the deficiencies which arise in our particular areas. I have been in some countries where I have admired the buildings and the equipment of the schools of even the rural areas. I was passing through Japan last week, and I was proud to see the external beauty of some of its rural schools. I had no opportunity of seeing the internal arrangements of the schools and I hope that the internal arrangements are as good as the external ones. I had an opportunity of seeing schools in rural areas in various countries, in two or three countries in America, and I'm always proud to think that in America and in Canada, the people have realized that the school should be the best building in the whole community. It should be an example to the inhabitants of the neighbourhood in order that they may conduct or carry out their own buildings to be as good as those of the schools. In some countries, however, and I'm sorry to say my own country lags in this respect, there are a considerable number of very poor buildings used as schools for the children, and I feel that when the child spends so much time in the school, he should be accommodated with buildings which are sanitary, well-lighted, and well-ventilated.

Then another deficiency with regard to rural education in my opinion is the inadequate beginning of the rural school. This applies to certain countries within my own knowledge. Some people who administer education in the rural areas consider that any teacher of very poor qualifications will do for the rural child. I am opposed to that most strongly. Two years ago at Oxford at this World Federation Conference,

I attacked the system of putting these unqualified, ill-equipped teachers in charge of the rural child. I made this claim. I claimed for the rural child an equal opportunity to have as good a teacher as his brother or sister in the town areas; and I feel, ladies and gentlemen, we must lay that down as one of our cardinal principles that the children in the rural areas are entitled to as good teachers as those who live in the towns and cities of our countries.

The children in the rural areas, compared to those in town schools, cannot be said to have at present an equal chance; yet equality of opportunity for all children should be advocated by the World Federation of Education Associations. It is, as you know, very costly to instal fully-qualified teachers in some of the very small schools, but I make bold to say this morning that nations and governments do not consider the cost when they want to carry out some project which they desire, and I think we should try to force the governments of the world to direct their attention to the necessity of supplying the rural child with the best possible teacher.

The next question that occurred to me was: What are our future needs? What do we want? I wonder whether you'll agree with me. Now I'm going to put down, or make a claim for about seven or eight real needs which we've acquired in the rural areas.

First, we want a co-ordinated system of education with free passage from one phase to the next. We want no break in educational continuity up to sixteen plus. We want university training for all teachers followed by pedagogy training in special branches. We want schools built on modern open-air plans, work-rooms, play-fields, gymnasias, barns and dining rooms. I could draw you a most lurid picture of some of the playgrounds and the playing fields which I have seen myself. Quagmires in winter and Saharas in summer, places altogether unfit for children to play.

Then we want control and administration jointly between the authority and the teacher. In a small county which is not a fifth of the population of one of your smaller towns, we have eight teachers on the education committee

upon which I serve. I want the teachers to come more and more into the administrative side of education, for who knows more than the teacher who works from the beginning to the end of the year about these rural schools. I was glad to hear in a section yesterday about Japan that you are also greatly in favour of this necessity. We want smaller classes, and I am bold enough to say that no class should exceed thirty in order to get at the individual child. I have seen photos of schools, of classrooms, containing seventy and eighty children. I hope that that is not the average number being taught by the teachers in any country. A doctor does not deal with his cases in the mass for physical complaints; neither should the teacher for mental growth and development. The teacher as well as the doctor has to diagnose correctly to be of any effective use, hence the need of smaller classes.

Another thing we want is that there should be no vocational training until after sixteen. I don't know whether you'll agree with me there. I notice that some countries engage very strongly in vocational training. I'm not quite sure of the aim. But, in my opinion, there should be no vocational training until after sixteen. After that age there should be vocational training, by full or part-time training, in technical, commercial, and art schools, colleges and universities.

Another thing we want is a greater variety in the types of schools of a secondary character to provide the foundation for future vocational training.

And finally we want a greater use of all types of schools as social and recreational centres for holding concerts, addresses, dramatic and musical entertainment.

Now some of you may think that I've asked for a great number of things. Well, I have, because I know of the necessity for these things, and some of you may ask the question: Why are these needed? Well, I'll tell you. And this is the great desire that should force everyone of us to see that they are really necessary for the country child, in order to produce better citizens with higher developed civic and social con-

sciousness and to prevent the rural population from getting behind the rest of the world in moral, intellectual, and economic growth; furthermore, to cut out the gross waste of life and wealth existing today from ignorance and stupidity.

I could give you many examples of that gross waste which is taking place in the world today in various ways. But, I say this very boldly: we must stake a claim for the needs of a proper education and a proper life for the rural inhabitants of our countries. And I should like to ask this question: How can we face our national empire and international problems with a population mainly half-educated and with little or no appreciation because of the lack of education? How can we meet the dangers and possible disasters of a partially civilized life where there is no mutual confidence, where compromise takes the place of principle, where selfishness is rampant and where patriotism masquerades as knowledge? Civilization is like nature itself. It exacts a terrible penalty for ignorance. It compels us to move onward or slide backward. That is where education comes in, in the evolution of a nation: to spread enlightenment, to encourage understanding, to produce a spirit of optimism based on knowledge and to promote the desire for service. We as teachers engaged and as people interested in rural schools should win our fight on behalf of the rising generation to guide their footsteps in the paths of knowledge, righteousness and civilization, so that we leave our country better than we found it. This should be our motto and our epitaph; when we die it would be a good thing to carve it over our heads:

‘We saved the young;

We served the nation.’”

Education in Rural Ireland

Dr. Thomas J. O'Connell

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The Irish people are in the main a rural population. They derive their living chiefly from the land which is rich and fertile. Ireland has comparatively few large cities. In less than half a dozen does the population exceed 10,000. Only two cities, viz., Dublin and Cork, have a population approaching half a million. The great bulk of the people are engaged in agriculture and its allied industries. They live in small hamlets or villages or in isolated farmhouses. In order to suit the needs of this rural population, small schools were established at a distance of three or four miles from one another. That was in the days before the development of modern methods of transportation. And although, of late, these have been some attempts at consolidation, Ireland is still a country of small schools. In the whole of the island there are close to 8,000 elementary schools. We call them "National Schools" because the instruction given in many of them goes beyond the elementary stage. In 75 per cent of the schools the average daily attendance is less than 60 pupils. More than 90 per cent of them could be classed as rural schools. Therefore, any account of education in Ireland must necessarily treat of the subject from the rural standpoint.

The Irish people have always attached very great importance to their rural schools. This, of course, was only to be expected in the circumstances. Up to a comparatively recent date, only scanty provision was made for secondary or continued education and the national school provided the only education available to the great majority of the people. It has been, and continues to be, the settled policy of our Education Department to pay the same standard scale of

salary to all teachers in national schools no matter whether they teach in town or country, in a big city or in a little school on a mountain side. This policy has operated to a great extent towards retaining the services of highly qualified teachers in the rural schools. In most other countries we find that higher salaries are paid in the larger centres with the result that the best and most highly qualified teachers are attracted to these centres. Within the last few years the tendency in Ireland has been towards a reversal of this policy. In some of our more remote areas now the teacher receives not alone the ordinary standard scale applicable to the whole country, but in addition he is paid a special annual bonus amounting to about twenty pounds (or 100 dollars) and is provided with a free house built for him by the State. This is intended to compensate him for the loss of those amenities which are found (or, should I say, are supposed to be found) in large centres of population. Everything possible is done to encourage highly qualified and successful teachers to remain in the rural schools.

Attendance at school is compulsory between the ages of 5 and 14. Certain exceptions and exemptions are made to suit rural conditions; for example, children under 10 are exempt if there is no school nearer than two miles. Children who have reached the age of 12 may absent themselves for not more than ten days during the Spring and harvest season, provided they are engaged in light agricultural work *on their parents' holdings*. They may not be employed for hire or are they permitted to give their service even gratis to a neighbouring farmer. Power has been given to the Minister for Education by Act of Parliament to extend the leaving age from 14 to 16, but up to the present this power has not been exercised. The Minister has, however, undertaken recently to raise the age of 15 within certain limited areas where he considers the conditions are such as to warrant the extension, and if the experiment proves successful, the full powers given him by the Act will eventually be made operative.

While the limits for compulsory attendance are 5 to 14 years, children are admitted generally at the age of 4, and in

some cases, where special provision has been made for very young children, they are eligible to attend at 3. In the remote rural areas where there is small opportunity of attending secondary or vocational schools pupils may continue in voluntary attendance at the national schools up to the age of 15 or 16. It is not uncommon for these older pupils to attend in fairly large numbers during the winter months and as weather conditions may affect the attendance of the younger children at this period the teacher has an opportunity of devoting extra attention to their instruction.

Within the past 20 years much attention has been given to the provision of suitable school buildings. Many of the older buildings have been replaced by more modern and up-to-date structures; others have been enlarged and re-constructed. As already stated, consolidation has gone on to a limited extent, mostly in the direction of amalgamation and co-ordination of boys' and girls' departments, which in the earlier years of our system were generally separate units. Efforts are being made with some success to secure suitable playgrounds and playing fields in connection with *all* our schools, and over the whole country a system of medical and dental inspection and treatment is in operation. In many areas also school meals are provided by the authorities, more especially during the winter months and in the more remote districts.

So far I have described conditions which are common to the whole country. Before I deal with curricula, however, I must explain that Ireland is no longer a single political entity.

Up to the year 1922 Ireland as an integral part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland was ruled by the British Parliament sitting in London. Following centuries of agitation by the Irish people for their request for an independent existence, a compromise arrangement was arrived at in that year whereby three-fourths of the country was accorded the status of a self-governing Dominion with an independent parliament such as exists in Canada or Australia, while the remaining fourth, consisting of six counties in the north-eastern portion of the country, with Belfast as the chief city, remained attached to Britain. Certain limited powers

enabling it to regulate such things as Education, Public Health and other matters of purely local or internal concern were delegated to this six-country area which is now officially known as "Northern Ireland." The self-governing portion of the country is called "The Irish Free State." Though it is not within the province of this paper to touch on what might be regarded as political questions, I may say, for the sake of information, that this political partition of our country was effected without the approval or consent of any section of the Irish people, north or south, and that the ideal which at the present time inspires all sons of Ireland is to see the end of this unnatural division of our country and the whole of Ireland united under a native Parliament. In all Ireland there are only 32,000 square miles. The total population is about 4 million, that is, only two-thirds of this City of Tokyo. Its natural boundary is the sea. It is really too small to support two parliaments and two governments. It is interesting to note that most of the nation-wide organizations that existed before 1922 have continued their activities on a national basis just as if these were no political division of the country. This is specially true of the teaching organizations. Teachers from North and South have all the time continued to work harmoniously with the same organization and to co-operate in advancing the interests of education and of the teachers in their respective areas.

One effect of this political division has been the establishment of two different Education Authorities within the country and this in turn has led to some marked differences in the curricula of the schools situated respectively in Northern Ireland and the Free State. The one great difference arises from the fact that in the Irish Free State an effort is being made, through the medium of the schools, to revive the ancient language of the country and to make it once more the spoken tongue of the people.

Up to 100 years ago the Irish or Gaelic language was commonly spoken throughout the greater part of Ireland. At one period of our history it was the only language. It has a rich and varied literature, poetry and prose: legendary,

historical, and religious. Due to political causes which I need not go into here its development was arrested in the seventeenth century. During the latter part of the nineteenth century English spread over the greater part of the country, but there remained, and still remain, certain areas in the more remote districts where Irish is the language of everyday life among the people. For the last half century there has been a strong movement in favour of the revival of the language, but it was only in 1922 when the home government was set up that it became possible to use the schools as a means to this end. Since that date the teaching of Irish has been compulsory in all the schools in the Irish Free State. Steps were taken to train the existing teachers so as to enable them to undertake the work. Student teachers were drawn in the main from the Irish speaking areas. At the present time practically three-fourths of the teachers are qualified, not only to teach Irish, but to use that language as a medium of instruction. It is only right to say that there are many people in Ireland who doubt the wisdom of this policy, who doubt especially whether the government is justified in devoting so much of the available school time to this subject to the necessary exclusion of some other subjects generally found in the curriculum of a primary school. There are some, too, who while fully in favour of the revival policy would prefer less intensive methods in the attempted restoration. But while these doubts exist as to the methods which are being adopted there is universal agreement on the general policy and the fact remains that there is at present in progress in the Irish Free State an experiment which, so far as I am aware, is unique in the history of Educational Administration, that is, an attempt to revive a language which had become almost dead and to make it once more the everyday speech of the people. A considerable amount of success has already attended this policy. Most young people who have passed through the schools since 1922 can speak the language more or less fluently but it is yet too soon to say whether the effort will be crowned with ultimate success.

The time and attention devoted to the backing of the Irish

language in Free State Schools has necessarily had the effect of limiting the curriculum in so far as other subjects are concerned. But at the same time, and considering the difficulties inherent in the problem of having only one teacher to deal with 20 or 30 children of varying ages and grades, the range and variety of subjects included in the programme of the elementary school is comparatively larger. Through the whole course of instruction an effort is made to give the teaching a strong moral bias to interest the pupils in their surroundings in the local history of folklore of their parish or district. Folk dancing is taught and practised in most of the schools. Poetry and drama form an important part of the programme for the senior grades. A Drama League has recently been established in Dublin and annual competitions are held in which schools from all over the country take part. Really wonderful progress has been made of recent years in this branch of instruction. Irish children and the Irish people generally have a great love for and appreciation of the drama. The Abbey Players have a world-wide reputation.

In most schools the teaching of Rural Science or nature study forms part of the curriculum. Pupils are thus induced to take an interest in the national phenomena with which they are in daily contact and this has the effect of counteracting the so-called dullness and monotony of rural life.

In Northern Ireland there is no effort being made to revive the national language and so there is thus more time for extended courses in the usual subjects of the elementary school curriculum. Otherwise there is no material difference between the two areas. In both the underlying principle is to train the child to be a useful citizen and to encourage him in so far as that is possible and practical to look to the land as a means of livelihood. During the last dozen years rapid developments have taken place both North and South in secondary and higher education, and the number of pupils enrolled in secondary schools is now four times as great as it was twenty years ago.

These schools cater in the main to those who intend to

follow a professional career or to enter the higher branches of the government or commercial service. For those who are engaged in industry and commerce there are vocational and technical schools. The vocational school system has spread rapidly throughout the country within the past few years and opportunity is afforded in the rural areas for instruction in agriculture and horticulture, bee-keeping, poultry rearing, domestic science, etc

It would not be proper for me to close this sketch without making some reference to one of the fundamental features of our system. The Irish are a religious people and in every elementary school in Ireland—North and South—religious instruction forms an important part of the curriculum. Usually the schools are attended by pupils of the same creed, but no school may refuse admission to a pupil because of his creed, nor can any child be compelled to attend religious instruction to which his parent or guardian objects. Combined literary and separate religious instruction form the underlying principle of our system and as all creeds believe in and accept the principle of religious teaching in the schools our country has happily escaped the bitter controversies to which this subject has given rise in many other lands.

[*Dr. O'Connell was followed by Dr. P. Seshadri, President, Government College, Ajmer, India, who delivered a speech on "Problems of Rural Education in India."*]

The Education of Infants in Rural Schools

Miss J. A. Callard

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Although our subject is "The Education of Infants in Rural Schools," there is no real difference in the aims of education of infants in rural schools from those of infants in urban areas. It is only that in rural schools there are special difficulties which require that special arrangements should be made. In practice it often means that children in these areas have fewer facilities and less satisfactory provision than their colleagues in the towns. The fact of the sparse population involves travelling longer distances and, therefore, often accounts for attendance commencing at a later age. In England and Wales the age of compulsory attendance is five. In some of the urban areas children are admitted at an earlier age and in some districts provision is made, through what are called nursery schools or nursery classes, for children from two or three years of age. Such children have had the advantage of helpful environment, training in good habits, opportunities for nurture and medical supervision which prevents their passing into the compulsory infants' school subject to physical and mental disadvantages that may sometimes be found in children whose home circumstances leave much to be desired. In rural areas children seldom have these advantages and the work of the teacher is therefore the more difficult.

Where children have the best kind of home the fact that they are admitted to infants' schools at a later age is not so great a handicap as when they come from homes where, owing to the multitude of domestic duties, the mother is unable to give much assistance to the young children. That is the first point that I wish to make, that, compared with

the children in towns, children in rural areas suffer from lack of the best conditions; and the second is that because of the long distances that they often have to travel they enter school at a later date. These, however, are not the only handicaps.

The sparse population means that the number of infants in attendance at a rural school may be very small. The actual provisions in the school, therefore, are not usually as good as in the town schools, and this applies to some of the teachers engaged. It is not an unknown thing in the schools of England and Wales for the person having charge of some of the infants in a rural area to be without teaching qualification. The term "supplementary teacher" is used, but is misleading, as the person has no claim to be regarded as a teacher either with academic or professional qualification. This is one of the conditions deplored by educationists and one that the National Union of Teachers is constantly striving to abolish.

Having thus directed attention to the disadvantage experienced by the infant pupil in a rural school, I may perhaps be permitted to say that there is a sense in which they would be better placed if the provision, and especially the number of teachers, was equal to that found in the best schools in urban areas. This will appear as I proceed to deal with the various points I have in mind in the education of these young children. In this respect I hesitate to use the word "curriculum" lest it be misunderstood. I cannot, however, convey my meaning without employing that term, and so perhaps I ought to state that the curriculum has to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired or facts to be stored.

In the first place, in the training of teachers for the infant school, attention should be given to the physical well-being and efficiency of the child. This is especially necessary in rural schools since so very small a proportion of children reach the infant school through the nursery school or class and are not medically supervised through

other agencies. Attempts have been made to repair the damage that has been done through the effects of illness and the lack of continuous medical care during the first five years of life. This does not mean that only suitable physical and remedial exercises should be provided. It requires in addition regular opportunities for rest and training in all the desirable bodily habits, in particular in personal cleanliness. It also involves ample provision for free movements of every kind in the fresh air and in sunshine, wherever possible. The old idea of keeping children in infants' schools at desks for the greater part of the day is fundamentally wrong. Freedom for movement and full opportunities for exploring the world through the senses are the prime requisites for the growing child.

It is in this direction that the child in the rural school may have advantages, for it is upon the open-air activities and interests of the children that the training and teaching of the infants' school should be based, because it is there that the children's first interests emerge. Free movements of every kind should, therefore, be provided, including running, romping, jumping, climbing and dancing. These activities should be unhampered and the teacher in this respect should be the guide who only intervenes to assist children to play together or to control their movements so that they can move quietly, when necessary, breathe properly and cultivate habits of good posture, whether standing or sitting.

Further, the open air, in addition to being the best environment for the physical well-being of these young children, also provides the best opportunity for the young child to gain experience and knowledge which comes through observation. It is in the open air that he finds the objects that appeal to his primitive instincts—plants, flowers, bushes, living animals, streams, movable sand, and these are his raw materials for experience and experiment. In the observation of real things and happenings in the open air are to be found the foundations upon which are laid most of the branches of knowledge which will be studied later. In this

connection it might be mentioned that the garden should form an important part of the infants' school and there is no reason in rural areas why this should not always be so. There is also the possibility of keeping animals and birds which again are of very great value in the training of which I am speaking.

In addition to the satisfaction of childish curiosity which comes from open-air exercises and work, there will also be provision for the exercise of the creative instinct. Modelling and drawing will be found excellent as a means of satisfying the needs of the children.

In reference to what is more generally accepted as schooling, perhaps it is necessary here to state that the infant school buildings provide an opportunity for realizing a standard of life for the acquisition of social habits for the exercise of unselfish consideration for others. And in this respect the rural school has a great work to do. It is not usual for children attending rural schools to have had careful training in speech. Although they are already able to express themselves, much remains before they can do so in a way that is satisfactory. Speech training, therefore, must be given an important place. If it receives its due attention it should serve a double purpose—to help the child to understand his vocabulary and to express his ideas more freely. It will also serve as the opportunity which has to be most carefully used to correct slovenly and inaccurate utterance.

Even those who only give passing attention to children and their activities cannot fail to be impressed with the fact that it is natural to them to express a sense of rhythm in movement. This should be encouraged and various ways provided for them to give expression to this sense of rhythm. Grace of movement will be increased through the joyful dance, both in association with music and as a means of expressing the feelings that are stimulated when simple and beautiful music is heard. Singing finds a natural place and a prominent one in the activities of infants' schools.

Traditional hymns, nursery rhymes and game songs form

a natural repertoire for younger children. Closely associated therewith should be the opportunities for the child's love of acting, which is a basic interest with most children. Dramatization assists to develop the power of expression in movement which, on the one hand, is associated with the development of perception of feeling, and on the other, offers an excellent opportunity for practice in speech. Constructive work of various kinds ought to occupy an important place in the activities of the school. From his earliest years a child has used his hands to explore the nature of his material surroundings. When observed, it is obvious that he wants to use his powers and knowledge in making objects. These may, and very often are not the kind which an adult would like him to make, and teachers have found difficulty in leaving children to experiment themselves; and yet it is by experimentation, trial and error, that the child learns most. Hence, many educationists have long reached the conclusion that in general manual and aesthetic development are best secured when the child is left to make what he likes, within reason, rather than set lessons. The teacher's duty in this lies rather in finding ample scope to help the pupil to overcome difficulties of construction as they occur, helping the child to realize what he desires to make, when his desires have become quite plain, and his difficulties call for a little assistance. In the same way drawing should be regarded. This is a natural form of expression for a child. He is eager to draw things that interest him and does not realize the difficulties which adults think exist for him. The teacher may think an object far too difficult for a child to attempt but the pupil himself is not deterred. If he is allowed to choose himself, bright colours in which to execute the drawing and large sheets of paper on which he can draw, his interest is awakened, his effort is stimulated and his creative impulse satisfied.

There was a time, not long ago, when in the infants' schools of England and Wales, far too much attention was given to instrumental subjects which in my own country are known as the three R's—reading, writing, and arithmetic.

In recent years it has become better understood and it is now accepted that to attempt to teach these three subjects too soon may be a handicap to the pupil himself. Attempts have been made and experiments carried out to discover when these forms of knowledge and skill should be taught. Among progressive educationists in my own country it is now accepted that the three R's should be learned by a child when he wants to learn them. In some cases there are pupils who desire to do so as early as three years of age; there are others where children of six seem to find no desire to acquire the three R's. It has been discovered that more rapid progress is made if these are taught when the pupil shows that he desires to learn them.

Since reading is the means by which further education is better served, it is regarded as being the most important of the three R's. The various methods of approach have been discussed, and there are advocates of special methods of approach, but the best method is that which the teacher finds for herself to assist the children to realize their desires. Much of the introductory work to reading, as well as to handling numbers, will occur naturally in their other exercises through their games. But by the time children have passed through the infants' school they are expected to have sufficient foundation to enable progress to continue when they pass into the next stage, which is known as the junior school. For this reason various attempts have been made to classify the aspects of training and teaching and to allot the time which should be devoted to each of them. These include religious instruction, which in England and Wales is subject to special conditions; natural activities, including physical training, open-air life, rest and play; expression training, including speech, dancing and singing, handwork and drawing; and formal instruction in the three R's.

Of the time available for secular occupations, roughly speaking, a half should be given to natural activities and the other half to expression in the case of younger children in infant schools, and one-third to each of these and one-third to formal instruction in the three R's in the case of the older

children. These are only suggestions since it is not thought advisable to adopt any hard-fast rule as to the length of lessons in infants' schools.

The principle underlying the procedure of the infants' school is that as far as possible the child should be put in the position to teach himself, and the knowledge that he acquires should come more from an instructive environment than from an instructor. This places a great responsibility upon the teacher because the educational apparatus necessary to provide this instructive environment has to be provided. Much of it can be bought from various educational publishers, but experience has proved that the best apparatus is that which the teacher herself designs and makes in the full conviction of its necessity and that the knowledge that comes from close observation of the pupils in her charge.

In the infants' schools, both in rural and in urban areas of England and Wales, it is an accepted axiom that freedom is essential for the child. Old-fashioned teachers are apt to regard such freedom as dangerous, but it only becomes so when there is nothing to attract the child's attention and to absorb the child's restless activity and thus provide an outlet for his curiosity and his experimental spirit.

Perhaps, in conclusion, I ought to make reference to the place that oral lessons hold in infants' schools. The child's progress depends upon his acquiring new ideas and new interests and that progress will be the more permanent and rapid if these new ideas and new interests are presented at the right moment. The oral lesson holds a definite place in the school procedure since in this way new ideas and new interests can be introduced with an economy of time and effort. For this reason, wherever in rural schools there can be a group of sufficiently high level in attainment, these should take the oral lesson together. Group work also provides opportunities for children to work harmoniously with others to gain some experience of subordinating their free impulses to the necessity of common action. Incidentally, too, it gives practical experience of the way in which work may be divided and a result obtained by common effort.

One factor which is sometimes overlooked is the need for recognizing that children in the infants' school require opportunities for repose. Up to the age of five there is need for a midday sleep. The need diminishes between the ages of five and six, but throughout the infants' school stage the child requires some occasions for rest when his brain and his limbs can recuperate. This provides the opportunity for using quiet periods for the telling of stories, for reading aloud to the children and thus satisfying their love of a story and leading them to forget in the interest of the narrative the urge to activity which plays such a large part in the development at this age.

In conclusion, those interested in the development of rural life, as well as those who are convinced of the part that the rural community can play in strengthening the life of a nation, should determine that as far as possible they will endeavour to secure for the children whose parents live in rural areas equal educational facilities, commensurate educational amenities and equal provision of good teachers for children in rural areas as are accepted for children who attend town schools.

How Scotland Solves Her Rural Educational Problems

Mr. Thomas Henderson

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The small country to which I belong and from which I bring warm greetings to my fellow teachers all over the world has suffered, like most other countries, from those processes of rural depopulation and urban concentration so bitterly bemoaned by many tender-hearted poets and philosophers. I

doubt if any other country can show more spectacular results of the operation of those processes. Few, if any, countries have such a "scatter" of population. Few have so large a proportion of their people concentrated in so few urban centres. Let me put it in terms of school children and teachers:

The four large cities (Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Dundee) have an enrolment of 309,850 children and 10,230 teachers; the rest of the country (31 counties) has 503,104 children and 18,559 teachers. Of these 31 counties, the most populous, Lanarkshire, has an enrolment of 93,320 (about half that of Glasgow) and 2,969 teachers; the least populous, Peeblesshire, has 1,844 children and 81 teachers.

England is vastly more populous than Scotland. It has a much more fertile soil. It is far wealthier in mineral resources. The revolution in industry and agriculture began there. Yet though there is, of course, a considerable "scatter" of population in England, that country cannot show anything like the tremendous lopsidedness of population-concentration which is the cardinal fact in any survey of Scotland. Were England's population distributed in the Scottish manner England would have, as Cecily Hamilton has recently pointed out, one inordinately large town or congeries of towns in London and the lower Thames valley, containing at least a quarter of the entire population, and only three other large towns. But no such top-heavy state of affairs is found in England, though she has serious problems of depopulation to consider. Wales approximates the Scottish position.

For myself, I am not disposed to shed idle tears over what is called "rural depopulation"—depopulation which is due to migration for economic reasons to urban centres. No doubt that process has elements of danger, but on the whole we can apply safely, I think, the old saying with a new meaning to those who so leave the rural scene:

"They left their country for their country's good."

We are apt to regard agriculture as almost changeless or, at least, changing only at a very slow rate. But we should not under-estimate the effects of the agricultural revolution.

Improvements in agricultural methods of production meant that fewer people were required to raise agricultural products. The revolution in methods was inevitable; the results of the revolution were, I suggest, also inevitable. Have the results been to the greater good of society? One result is certainly beneficial. Migration has been the agricultural labourer's most effective means of protecting and, it may be, of improving his standard of living. My friend Professor A. W. Ashby, of Aberystwyth, who is one of the coolest and sanest of agricultural economists, is positive that the transfer of population has enriched the whole of society. He quotes with approval the late Professor Edwin Cannon's characteristic comment:

"The advance of science and inventions gave rise to one of the most enduring and most satisfactory tendencies of human progress—the tendency for an ever-diminishing proportion of human labour to be required for satisfying the human stomach, which, as Adam Smith observed, is of limited capacity."

And, as you know, even that limited capacity is now being further restricted by the dietetic reformers. As a witty American has put it, the best, perhaps the only, cure for agricultural depression is for the farmer to grow radio-sets and gramophones instead of rice and maize and wheat. I need hardly point out that, in effect, that is what has been happening for many years and has accelerated the process of rural depopulation.

I have said all this in order to provide my theme with a sketchy background. Those to whom the work of education is entrusted—administration and teachers alike—have to solve their problems under conditions imposed by the secular forces that have produced "rural depopulation" and urban concentration, that have scattered the population in so fantastically irregular a manner between small areas housing teeming multitudes and vast tracts of mountain and moor and seashore where only a handful of people remain.

Obviously the low density of Scotland's rural population and the corollary thereof—its abnormal distribution of property, sex, and age—make the provision of educational facilities

much more expensive than in the areas of concentrated population. Where a city, for example, can use one teacher for the maximum number of pupils permissible per class (50 in the case of primary schools in Scotland), a rural county must provide twice as many teachers (or more) in proportion. In Kirkcudbrightshire, not the least densely populated of our rural counties, the average is one teacher to twenty-four pupils. Obviously, also, the more thinly the population is scattered the more rapidly the expense tends to mount. The average cost per pupil of Peebles, with a mere handful of pupils, is more than £1 higher than in Glasgow with its dense concentration of population (£18 as against £17). It is almost £7 higher in Sutherland, which has a great area very thinly populated and only 2,358 children enrolled.

In Scotland there are 35 local Education Authorities—31 counties and the four large cities of Glasgow (1 million plus), Edinburgh ($\frac{1}{4}$ million plus), Dundee and Aberdeen (each $\frac{1}{8}$ million). Part of the money they spend on education comes from the National Exchequer. The balance is made up from local rates levied on property—a method that has long been under a severe fire of criticism, but still survives attack. The Government's share amounted recently to £6,749,883 and the amount contributed by the counties was £6,004,272. In all, £13,000,000 plus was spent on education.

Clearly, if the Government's share were allocated in *equal proportions* to each area, serious injustice would be done to the poorer, less densely-populated areas, especially in the North of Scotland where the counties are of vast acreage, have small populations, few industries, scanty natural resources and therefore, low ratable value. The Scottish Education Department, on which falls the duty of supervising the work of the Education Authorities throughout the country, has also to perform the difficult and invidious task of allocating the money granted by the Government. The Department has worked out (it is no injustice to say that it has worked out by the method of "trial and error") a scheme of distribution which, though open to several objections (mainly in theory), has on the whole given satisfaction to most of the Education

Authorities. Perhaps it would be more correct to say—it would certainly be safer—that the scheme of allocation has given the minimum degree of dissatisfaction to the great majority of the Education Authorities.

The bulk of the grant from the Government, which bears a definite relation to the expenditure on Education of England and Wales, is distributed thus:

£ 4- 16- 3 per pupil.

£ 118- 10- 0 per teacher.

This is intended to deal out even-handed justice to the areas of many pupils, i.e., the densely-populated areas and to the areas of low density where there are necessarily many teachers in proportion to the total number of pupils. In addition the special case of the northern counties (usually, though not quite correctly called the Highland counties)—Shetland, Orkney, Caithness, Sutherland, Ross and Cromarty, Invernesshire and Argyll—is dealt with by granting them an additional sum (the "Highland Grant"), so that a very large percentage of the total expenditure on education of these counties is met from national funds. The percentage varies from almost 68 in Caithness to 85 in Shetland. For the whole country the proportions are:

From grants 52-9 per cent; from rates 47.1 per cent.

Though, as I have hinted, the Education Authorities are not invariably satisfied with the Department's method of allocating the Government Grant, none of them, so far as I know, has ever objected to the practice of supplementing the grant paid to the Northern counties.

As you can imagine, in view of the remarkable "scatter" of population in Scotland, there has been, from time to time, considerable discussion of the best method of grouping children for the purposes of Education. From the beginning of our system, the Parish School has occupied a position of special distinction. It was closely linked to the Church. It was, in general, situated at the most easily accessible spot in the Parish, which was, primarily, the local unit of ecclesiastical administration—the area, that is, served by one Minister of the Church. Doubtless because of its convenience the Parish

became a unit for civil administration also. Because of the "scatter" of population some parishes were, even in the beginning, inconveniently large and, of course, as time went on and the population redistributed itself, many urban Parishes became so populous as to be almost, if not absolutely, unmanageable. The Church got over this difficulty by dividing such Parishes into areas with churches of their own. These areas were called Parishes *quoad sacra*, i.e., they had the full rights of Parishes so far as ecclesiastical affairs were concerned, to distinguish them from the original Parishes which were Parishes *quoad sacra et civilia*, i.e., for both ecclesiastical and civil purposes.

The Parish School no longer enjoys the privileges it enjoyed before 1872, when compulsory education was introduced by law, but it is interesting to note that even now it is possible to trace the old Parish School beneath the more imposing outward appearance of a centre for Secondary Education.

Where the needs of the population or the limitations of geography demanded them, additional schools were erected, a process which was, naturally, greatly accelerated when education was made compulsory. The general plan was—and is—to provide a primary school within walking distance of the homes of the children. In actual practice a distance of three miles between school and home was regarded as the maximum. In law, the fact that a greater distance separates home and school may be regarded as a sufficient reason for the failure of a parent, on whom the legal obligation to have his children educated—to send his children to school—falls. Perhaps I may be allowed to cite an interesting case within recent years from one of the Southern rural counties—Dumfriesshire, a large part of whose area is occupied by hill-ranges, much used for sheep-grazing. By reason of their work the shepherds in charge of the flocks live very isolated lives far from even the smaller villages, and the education of their children has always been attended with difficulties. One method—not infrequently used in the Highland counties but rarely elsewhere—is to set up what is called a Side-School, under the

supervision of the headmaster of the nearest ordinary school. In this Side-School the children of shepherds or hill-farmers or deer-stalkers or other workers whose calling isolates them from the generality of mankind are taught in their own homes, usually by an untrained, uncertificated teacher. How seldom the method is used you can gather from the fact that there are only 79 such teachers employed in Scotland, 37 of them in Sutherland and 27 in Ross and Cromarty.

The Education Authority of Dumfriesshire had such a Side-School in the hills above the historic little burgh of Sanquahar. The untrained, certificated teacher in charge of it left to be married. The Education Authority was unable to procure the services of another person of that kind. In the interests of clarity I had better state here that no Education Authority can pay to certificated teachers salaries less than those laid down by the Scottish Education Department, after consultation with the Education Authorities and the teachers, in what are known as the Minimum National Scales. They can, of course, pay more if they like.

In the Dumfriesshire case the Education Authority decided to close the Side-School and transfer the shepherd's children to Sanquahar, about 6 miles away, mostly over a rough track. They offered the shepherd an allowance to enable him to board out the children in Sanquahar. The shepherd, besides regarding the allowance proposed as quite inadequate, objected to his children being taken away from home for the greater part of the week. He, therefore, refused to send his children to Sanquahar. The Authority, by virtue of the power conferred on them by the Act of 1872, prosecuted him for his failure to send his children to school. The Sheriff, who heard the case held that his reasons for refusal were sound, and dismissed the case. The Authority then reopened the Side-School, and, still being unable to get an untrained uncertificated teacher to go there, had to send a trained, certificated teacher who was also a graduate of a University, to teach 3 or 4 children.

I'm sorry to say that the story has an epilogue. A year or two later the same Authority closed a small primary school

far up Moffat Water in the midst of the lively and romantic hills of the Borders, a land of legend and poetry—and sheep. One of the shepherds, whose dwelling is almost on the boundary line between Dumfriesshire and Selkirkshire—in fact, the Moffat Water rises before his door and one of the sources of the immortal Yarrow Water is but a few paces off on the Selkirkshire side of the watershed, had a little girl who had just reached school age (5). The nearest school in Dumfriesshire was 11 miles away. The Authority offered him two alternatives. He could send the little girl a mile down the steep hillside to the Grey Mare's Tail, a picturesque waterfall, where she could be picked up by a motorbus that came 8 miles up the glen every day to pick up children. As the motorbus could, if the shepherd accepted this offer, have 4 more miles per day to travel, the Authority asked him to pay 7/6 per week to defray the extra cost involved. As shepherds are not paid high wages, and only partly in money, this was an offer *pour rire*. The other alternative was that the child should be boarded out in Moffat. In that event, the Authorities were prepared to pay him an allowance of 57 per week. The shepherd who, naturally, did not like the idea of sending so young a child to live away from home refused this offer also, in the hope that the Authority would prosecute him for the child's non-attendance at school and he would so be enabled to tell his story in court. However, the Authority had not forgotten its chastening experience at Sanquahar and decided not to prosecute. So far as they were concerned, the child need never be educated at all. The shepherd was in no financial position to test the legality of the decision, so he made the best of a bad job, accepted the offered allowance and sent his little girl to stay with her grandmother in Moffat. Perhaps it may yet be found possible to obtain a legal decision on the question of the Authority to prosecute.

Interesting as the problems of isolated areas are in practice the problems of the normal rural countryside are much more important, for these administrators have to deal with definite communities with a social life of their own; with a body of social institutions, and frequently with an assertive community

sense, which has survived the "flight from agriculture" and is still strong and vital. It is literally an expensive matter to bring primary education to the child's door, as it were. It is a great deal more expensive to provide post-primary education.

The raising of the school-leaving age in 1939 has made it necessary for the Education Authorities to lay down plans for at least three years' courses of education after the primary stage. In preparing for the new development the Department has taken the important step of classifying all post-primary education as "secondary." This marks the end of a long series of rather fumbling experiments to bridge the gap between primary education and the traditional "academic" type of secondary education. There was for long enough a feeling of dissatisfaction with the educational provision made for those pupils who left school at 14 years of age during the last 2 years of their school life after they had passed through the primary stage. At present, curricula, which were to a large extent simplifications of the old secondary type met by infiltrations from the world of trade and industry, are in force in what are known as "Advanced Divisions"—advanced, that is, beyond the primary stage. The content of these curricula may be surmised from the fact that the courses in the Advanced Divisions may have "a commercial, technical, domestic or rural bias." The Advanced Divisions are regarded as part of the primary school.

The Department now makes a clear distinction between primary education (up to the age of 12) and secondary education. All that is not primary is secondary. Incidentally, this will, it is hoped, tend to eliminate the effect of the natural snobbery of parents which frequently leads them to send their children to secondary schools though they have little prospect of remaining to the end of the 5-years' secondary course and may have little aptitude for and derive little benefit from the study of the subjects of such a course.

Section 11 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1936, defines "secondary education" as instruction approved by the Department in such subjects as may from time to time be recognized

by them as suitable for pupils who have reached the conclusion of the primary course. In their Circular No. 103 the Department points out that thus the existing nomenclature under which the three-year courses of instruction following the primary stage are known variously as "advanced divisions," "intermediate," "post-primary" and "secondary" is simplified and clarified and an effort is made to enhance the educational status of the three-year courses so that they may take their proper place in an effectively articulated system of post-primary education. At the same time the Department makes it clear that their conception of "secondary education" is broadened. They point out that the term "secondary education" in the new statutory definition is not to be taken as implying a course in academic subjects only.

I may here interpolate the remark that no definition of "academic subjects" is given, but I may offer this purely empirical effort—English (including Literature and History), Classics (mainly Latin), Mathematics, Modern Languages (mainly French, and *longo intervallo*, German), Science (mainly Physics and Chemistry), and a choice of such subjects as Art, Music, Domestic Economy, and Geography.

Secondary Education is now defined as "a properly organized course following in natural development upon the primary stage and appropriate to the needs of the pupil and the anticipated period of school attendance beyond that stage. Such courses should be framed on either a three-year or a five-year basis as the case may be and should be organized with a view to providing for the progressive educational development of the natural capacities of the individual pupil."

So far, so good. How far this desirable widening of secondary courses and the supplying of the articulation of the system of instruction will be affected by the great uncertainty in the minds of Education Authorities and teachers regarding the possible effects of the provision for giving exemptions from school attendance to children of 14 years of age for "beneficial employment" none of us knows. If that continues to improve, the demand for juvenile labour, now rapidly growing, will become greater, more exemptions will be given than

if that were declining so that the number of children for whom the aforesaid well-articulated courses are created will be an indeterminate, but probably large, fraction of the total number. This uncertainty will undoubtedly seriously impair the good that might be expected from the courses. Education Authorities, ever conscious of the expense involved, will be careful about committing themselves to the provision of necessarily expensive equipment and teaching-staffs. They will, quite naturally from their point of view, provide for the minimum number of pupils likely to be enrolled for a three-year course, rather than for the maximum number possible. We shall, I fear, enter upon another period of makeshifts—a period of indefinite duration—and hand-to-mouth adjustment between what is admittedly desirable educationally and what is deemed adequate after rule-of-thumb efforts to relate the overhead charges to a fluctuating number of pupils.

We may also expect that the practice of Education Authorities in deciding what "beneficial employment" means will vary widely, the more widely in that only the vaguest and most general guidance has hitherto been given by the Government. And the demand for juvenile labour, both in town and country, is rising. There is a definite shortage of juvenile labour in many areas. In London the Junior Instruction Centres, set up for unemployed juveniles, have been discontinued. In rural areas farmers cannot obtain the services of as many boys as they want. Certainly, no one need expect that the experiment of raising the school-leaving age to 15 is to be tried under optimum conditions. And may I remind you that the proposal was made a law in 1918. Twenty-one years later it is to become operative with limitations not contemplated in 1918. A rather strange coming-of-age!

It will have been seen, however, that what are commonly, but perhaps narrowly construed as peculiarly rural interests are quite safeguarded. Some of us think that the safeguards are almost too efficient. No one, I think, would deny that the basic rural industry of agriculture, and the ancillary industries of horticulture and arboriculture, provide admirable material for instruction and in the hands of an enthusiastic

and skillful teacher can be used to great advantage. No one would deny that they provide a road, at least as interesting, as colourful, as rich in noble prospects, as many others to the goal of teachers—the harmonious development of the pupil's faculties of mind and body and soul. Any one point may be rightfully regarded as the centre of the world. Yet a doubt remains. The interests of children vary greatly. Upon that variation depends much of the progress of the world. We dare not sow with a sparing hand if we would reap an adequate harvest.

Is not a knowledge of the design and function of the engine as useful to the farmer as to the mechanic or to the suburban owner of an automobile? A knowledge of the principles of mechanics comes not amiss to the expert forester. The new gardening demands a knowledge of chemistry and electricity and biology never dreamed of by the earlier practitioners of Adam's art. The expression "rural bias" may have a generous or a rather ignoble meaning. Most of us hope that in practice it will be so interpreted as to make the pupil free not only of the narrow sphere of his own locality, but also of the whole world, to make him see how the country side in which he lives is linked with the rest of the nation to which he belongs and to the world of all mankind. We hope that it will be so interpreted as to exclude the conception that the schools exist to supply farmers and market gardeners and estate proprietors with an abundant supply of relatively cheap labour.

Sometimes the teachers are blamed for so educating our pupils as to make them desirous of getting away from the rural districts as soon as possible. If there is any truth in the allegation that there is such a desire, the major portion of whatever blame is due, must, I think, be laid on the broad and powerful shoulders of society, which goes on demanding more and more the service of technicians, railway porters, shipmen, clerks and the like, and less and less the services of agriculturists. Who can blame parents for seeing to it that their children get the best chance possible to fit themselves for the new land of promise—the great cities? Scotland, es-

pecially the rural districts, achieved fame, doubtless a fame bought at a price, as the educator of many men who have gone far from Scotland and won distinction for themselves and the race from which they sprang. Even Japan has seen the Scot. And the British Empire owes much to men from the rural districts of Scotland but whose "rural bias" came from life and not from formal instruction. Whatever else happens, however freely my native land may experiment with diverse types of curricula, she will never close the door of her educational system to the outer world.

The problem of "Centralize or Not" in post-primary instruction is never long absent from the minds of Education Authorities. In the more populous areas the solution is usually simple, though even the great cities have had occasional troubles caused by the disinclination of parents to send their children three-quarters of a mile instead of 300 yards to school, sometimes a natural enough disinclination in view of the risks involved in crossing streets made perilous by modern traffic developments. In the cities post-primary instruction is easily handled. It is far otherwise in many rural areas.

In the Highlands the situation is, paradoxically, so difficult as to be easy to manage. The population is so thinly scattered that the Education Authorities had to take special measures to make it easy for pupils who wished to embark on a secondary course to stay away from home or to travel considerable distances to school from their homes. Trains and motor-buses, where available, and, in some cases, bicycles enable some to travel daily. When the distances are too great, or no travelling facilities are available, lodging, in part or in whole, is paid for—in some cases in hostels, in others in isolated private houses. Thus, to take the case of Invernesshire, the Royal Academy of Inverness, which is the chief secondary school in the country, has pupils from the Outer Hebrides many weary land—and sea—miles away to the westward. These are housed in hostels. In Skye, Portree has one of the finest of hostels. At other centres, e.g., Kingussie and Fort William, lodgings are carefully chosen and supervised.

Education Authorities are empowered to pay allowances

in respect to expenses incurred by attendance at secondary schools for travelling or lodging or maintenance or a combination of these. In addition there is a fairly liberal provision of schools with a 2 or 3-year post-primary course, with, usually, the possibility of "switching" at definite points in the course to the full 5-year secondary course. It is in connection with these schools that most of the disputations over centralization arises.

Naturally, proposals to transfer children from one school to another at about age 12 arouse a certain amount of feeling. Local jealousies infuse a certain rancour into the discussion of such cases. Parents object to their children having to travel by train or bus. On the other hand the authorities find it difficult to keep down expense. I cannot be dogmatic. I am not sure enough of my own sympathies. The only sensible mode of solution—meantime at least—is *ambulando*.

At the outset of the county method of administration, it is probable that some Authorities agreed on the side of over-centralization—possibly under the influences, to some extent, of reports of the successful experience of some of the United States. But what can be done on the checkerboard of the Middle West is not so easy in Scotland. Scotland is not motor-conscious. It has a very old and deep sense of locality; it has a highly diversified surface; its means of communication, outside railways, are in part determined by historical accidents. A more unfavourable country for a thoroughgoing policy of centralization could hardly be imagined. What with geographical difficulties and the obstinacy of local opinion, in the main due to historical causes, such a policy was speedily found to be impracticable in most of the country.

That there will be a recurrence of trouble when the age is raised and greater post-primary facilities are provided, is tolerably certain. Parents will grumble; they may even organize "parents' strikes" because of their objections to centralization and the consequent lowering of the status of the school in their own locality. The head teachers of schools who lose their pupils will also feel naturally aggrieved. Members of Education Authorities have their full share of

local spirit. But, though there will be argument and disputes and real trouble in some cases, I do not anticipate that there will be any well-marked, general tendency to excessive centralization. If there was ever any risk of the appearance of such a tendency, the warning recently issued by the Scottish Education Department would, I think, have dispelled it. That warning was, in my judgment, wise and salutary:

"In many cases the Authority will no doubt consider it expedient, on grounds of educational efficiency as well as for the sake of economy, to provide post-primary education at central schools to which children will proceed after completing the primary course at the schools in the neighbourhood. This will clearly be an appropriate method in urban areas. The Department would, however, desire to remind Education Authorities responsible for rural areas of the wider considerations which such a policy involves in their case. Long distance transport of young children brings its own problems and difficulties, as does also housing in lodgings and hostels. The social and intellectual life of a village may be impoverished by the removal of the older children and the more highly qualified teachers. Even on purely educational grounds the centralization of the instruction of children from rural districts in high schools does not always furnish a suitable solution. A smaller degree of centralization in suitable rural centres with a curriculum appropriate to the local conditions may often prove the better course. The possibilities of that individual attention which in the tradition of Scotland gifted pupils have received from devoted teachers in small country schools should not be forgotten."

That final sentence calls to my mind a member of the organization of Scottish teachers, whose chief official I am. For many years he has been in charge of a small, a very small, rural school, of less than 50 pupils, in an exceedingly remote hamlet on the western seaboard of the most thinly populated county in the Highlands. The few inhabitants wrest a meagre livelihood from a stony soil and a dangerous sea. His school is almost 50 miles away from the nearest railway station. Even the main road is rugged and dangerous.

He has earned the undying gratitude of those he has served by the way in which, single-handed, he has trained his pupils up to the standard required for entrance to the Universities. His small school has been a Primary and Secondary School in one. No doubt he has been inspired by the fine old tradition of the Parish School. In return he has given that tradition a new lease of life and usefulness. He has shown, conclusively, as I think, that, given the ideal teacher, centralization is not desirable, not inevitable.

I deemed it fitting to bring to you from one small rocky island, where conditions are in some degree comparable with those of Japan, a modern instance of what I am sure you can easily find in your own land, a living proof that, no matter what the formal system of administration may be, no matter how scientifically controlled, how carefully articulated your diverse types of schools may be, the soul of the educational system of any country is the soul of the individual teacher. So long as that soul is filled with self-expressed enthusiasm, is sensitive to fine issues, so long will Education maintain its power to make the children of a nation fit inheritors of what is good and noble in the national heritage and worthy and able reformers of all that requires change in this constantly changing world.

An Outline of Agricultural Education in Nippon

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(See Vol. V, P. 274)

Some Aspects of Rural Education in Canada

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Courses in the rudiments of agriculture are taught in the elementary schools of Canada in the form of nature study in its relation and application to farming. The number of secondary schools providing instruction in agriculture is small but that number is increasing. Colleges teach the scientific phases of agriculture. These colleges and the Dominion and Provincial Farms and Stations maintain experimental services and conduct research work in solving the practical problems of the Canadian farmer. The Provincial and Dominion Departments of Agriculture publish and distribute literature describing the results of their research work. This system of agricultural education was described by Mr. V. K. Greer, Chief Inspector of Elementary Schools of the Province of Ontario, at the last meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations. It is not my intention to touch on this general plan but to confine our attention to two definite aspects of rural education and to limit the field to the Province of Ontario. As conditions are somewhat similar in all the Provinces, conclusions concerning Ontario are in a measure true for the other Provinces.

The first is the extension service rendered by the County Agricultural Representatives and the second is the work of the Women's Institutes.

An understanding of the work of these two groups depends upon a knowledge of the geography of the Province and the nature of its farming communities. Ontario is 1,000 miles from east to west and also 1,000 miles from north to south. It comprises an area larger than that of France and Germany combined. Of the 230 millions of acres, only 13½ millions are under cultivation.

Farming is extensive in type as compared with the intensive farming of some European countries and Japan. One hundred and 200-acre farms operated by one family are common in many counties. Oats, barley, wheat, timothy and clover are grown throughout the Province for the most part for the feed of live-stock. Mixed farming with a tendency toward either dairying or beef production is the common rule. An increasing number of districts have their specialities in vegetable growing, fruit (apples, peaches and grapes), tobacco, sugar-beets or poultry.

The farmers of Ontario are for the most part of English, Irish, Welsh and Scottish descent. Large settlements of French-Canadians are the descendants of those who came from Northern France in the seventeenth century to found New France. Counties neighbouring on Waterloo County are peopled by progressive Germans whose ancestors came to Canada over a century ago. Recent arrivals to the rural districts from European or Asiatic countries are not numerous and are engaged almost exclusively in vegetable and sugar-beet growing.

Changing social and economic conditions are not restricted to the urban centres of Ontario, but have tremendously affected the rural areas. The struggle of the pioneer days in clearing the land is over, except in a few settlements of Northern Ontario, but in its place has been substituted a fight against weeds and insects. Though success in either demands courage, the latter demands more scientific and technical knowledge. The horse as a source of power and a means of locomotion is being replaced by tractors, trucks and motor cars. The farmer no longer markets his produce locally, but ships it to distant markets affected by world conditions. Daily newspapers, rural telephones and radios have broken down the social isolation of the farmer. Rural children of today are growing up in an environment much more complex than that of a generation ago. The one-roomed rural elementary school can effectively teach the traditional school programme within the compulsory school attendance age of fourteen years, but experience has proved that further adult

education is necessary to develop a wider outlook and to give the practical, scientific knowledge required in the farming of today. This extension service is the task of the Agricultural Representatives and of the Women's Institute.

Work of Agricultural Representatives

Under a scheme sponsored by the Departments of Education and Agriculture, six graduates of the Ontario Agricultural College were appointed in 1907 to teach agriculture in high schools and to carry to the farmers a campaign for better agriculture. They were given no definite programme, but were required to devise their own plans. At first there was opposition on the part of some farmers who felt that no "white collar man" could teach them how to farm. At the end of six years the demands from farmers for assistance were so numerous and insistent that the teaching duties of these men were dropped and they were allowed to devote their whole time to office and field work. The Department of Agriculture became solely responsible for the administration of their work. At this time their name was changed to "Agricultural Representatives."

Their work has so expanded that now they number 59 in all, one for each county. The extent of the work can be judged from the fact that in the year ending March 31st, 1936, they had 118,909 visitors while they wrote 97,190 letters. Mr. R. S. Duncan, the Director of the Agricultural Representatives Branch of the Department of Agriculture of Ontario, in his annual report for the year ending March 31st, 1936, described their work in these terms:

"The work of the Agricultural Representatives is largely educational in character. They work with individuals and groups and are closely associated with practically all agricultural organizations carrying on a worth-while programme in the interests of agricultural betterment. Contacts are made through personal visits to farms; by interviewing callers in the office, by attending and addressing meetings, field-days, picnics and plowing

matches and by conducting demonstrations and judging competitions through definite project work. Requests through correspondence and telephone calls for specific information are increasing from year to year, which tends to show how much the service of the Representative is appreciated."

These representatives are not Government Inspectors enforcing Agricultural Acts. A representative may give an Act his moral support, but he has absolutely nothing to do with its enforcement. The duties of a representative are educational to give leadership and advice in a campaign for better agriculture.

This work may be considered under the two divisions—
(a) Senior extension; (b) Junior extension.

Senior Extension

Under senior extension are included those economic problems which have as their chief aim the increasing of the labour income of the farmers. They deal with the improvement of livestock and the improvement of soils and crops.

With the Agricultural Representative as leader, local organizations have waged campaigns for (1) better sires, (2) eradication of bovine tuberculosis from herds, (3) cow-testing, (4) parasitic control. Since the main project recently undertaken has been the control of parasites in horses, cattle, sheep, swine and poultry, there has been a very close co-operation with the Provincial Zoologist, the Ontario Veterinary College, the Ontario Agricultural College and other scientific bodies. The scientific knowledge of the representatives has enabled them to assist many communities in soil analysis.

In co-operation with the Chemistry Department of the Ontario Agricultural College, fertilizer experiments have been conducted in every country. In co-operation with the Crops, Seeds and Weeds Branch of the Ontario Department of Agriculture, the representatives were instrumental in having

established up-to-date seed cleaning plants and assisted in conducting Chemical Weed Killing Demonstrations. They rendered assistance in the organization of certain marketing Boards. Orchard Spraying Service, Potato Competition Fairs, Educational Tours and Alfalfa Campaigns are among other activities in which the representatives assisted. In this work the representative is the expert to give advice and the key-man in organizing a campaign.

Junior Extension

Junior extension work embraces the following phases:

(1) Rural School Fairs.

(For boys and girls, 8 to 14 years of age.)

(2) Boys' and Girls' Clubs.

(For boys and girls, 12 to 20 years of age.)

(3) Short Courses in Agriculture and Home Economics.

(For young men and women, 16 to 30 years of age.)

(4) Junior Farmers Associations and Junior Institutes.

(For young men and women, 16 to 30 years of age.)

(1) Rural School Fairs

In 1935 the Agricultural Representatives conducted 520 rural school fairs with an attendance of over 300,000. These fairs are conducted for boys and girls enrolled in the elementary schools. Registered grain and seed are distributed free of charge. The seed is sown in small plots according to directions. The pupils care for the growing plants. In September, the schools of a township combine for one school fair at a central point. The Agricultural Representative, the School Inspector and the teachers of the area are the directors and the judges. Local trustees provide the money for prizes. In addition to the products of the garden and field, children exhibit animals they have cared for, and the work they have done in writing, cooking, sewing, art, etc. Competitions in speaking, marches and singing are also popular features. These fairs serve as a culmination of the agricultural activities of the school for the season.

(2) Boys' and Girls' Club Work

Clubs are organized for boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 20 years at the time of enrolment. There are the following varieties of clubs:—

Boys' Calf Clubs, Boys' Swine Clubs, Boys' Foal Clubs, Boys' Grain Clubs, Boys' Potato Clubs, Boys' Sheep Clubs, Home Garden Clubs, Girls' Canning Clubs, Boys' Poultry Clubs and miscellaneous clubs.

In 1935, 423 clubs had a membership of 5,746. The outstanding feature of this work is that it is organized on a project basis. Each member must exhibit a substantial piece of work on a home farm designed to show some improved practice on the farm. He must make records of his project and be able to answer questions concerning it. In judging competitions he is required to give oral reasons for his decisions.

Inter-Country Club Competitions are held to determine winners for the Inter-Provincial Contests held annually at the Royal Winter Fair. These clubs teach good business methods, foster the spirit of thrift and responsibility, and educate rural leaders and good citizens.

(3) Short Courses in Agriculture and Home Economics

Since 1912, short courses in agriculture and home economics have been arranged for that group of rural young people who are older than the members of the Boys' and Girls' Clubs. Three types of courses are conducted—A Three-Months' Course, a One-Month Course and a Two-Weeks' Course. The local Municipality supplies the accommodation and the fuel; the Agricultural Representatives Branch the instructors in Agriculture and the Women's Institute Branch the women instructors in home economics. The county Agricultural Representative is responsible for the instruction and demonstration material. Usually these courses are given in the winter months and in different localities on successive years. The courses in agriculture are given concurrently with the courses in home economics in the same community.

It is evident that it is impossible to more than scratch

the surface in a course of a few weeks' duration. For this reason, the main objective of the course is not the immediate monetary value to be received from the practical information given in the course, but to arouse the interests of these young people so that they may continue the studies inaugurated at the short course. The fact that over a hundred short courses are annually asked for and given goes to show that the interest of the young men and women of Ontario in these courses has been aroused and is being sustained.

(4) Junior Farmers Associations and Junior Institutes

One of the outcomes of the short courses was the birth of the Junior Farmers Associations for the young men and the Junior Institutes for the young women. The purpose was to hold these students together in their respective groups that they might continue the studies commenced in the short courses. As each group is responsible for its own set-up, there is a great variety of practices followed by the different Associations and Institutes. The more common practices are to have the two organizations in the community meet together on the same evening at a common centre, usually a farm home, to hold separate sessions for the first part of the evening and then the two groups to come together for a joint social and educational hour. With a few exceptions, the programmes are given by the members themselves.

Ontario has had these organizations for the past twenty years. What is their value? After commenting on the fact that they have some value which may be expressed in dollars and cents, Mr. J. E. Whitelock of the Department of Agriculture of Ontario gives his estimate of their real value in these words:

"That, in itself, is encouraging, but what is even more so, is to see these young people now active leaders in their respective communities and in fact, everything that has to do with the improvement of their home and community life."⁽¹⁾

(1) J. E. Whitelock, *Extension Service Circular 197*, United States Department of Agriculture.

The Women's Institutes of Ontario

The first institute was established in 1897 in Saltfleet Township to enable farm and village women to meet regularly and discuss their problems and to acquire information concerning their responsibilities as homemakers and citizens. At the end of 1935, there were 1,371 institutes with a membership of 42,000 and branches in every inhabited section of Ontario.

The branch institute is the basis of the whole organization. It is non-partisan and non-sectarian and thus open to all women and girls interested in the promotion of better living. These branches are combined into thirteen convention areas. A Provincial Board of Federated Women's Institutes has been organized to assist local branches in their programmes. A Federated Women's Institute for Canada has been established as a clearing house and to initiate a national programme. Since 1929, this latter organization has been affiliated with the Associated Country Women of the World.

The original objective of the Institutes was "the dissemination of knowledge." Today, as the Handbook of the Women's Institutes points out "greater emphasis would be placed on the understanding of human beings and their relationships, the artistry in housing, foods and clothing, and the social and economic factors harmonizing community and home life." The motto of the organization, "For Home and Country," sums up the purpose of the institutes.

In a recent study, Mr. V. K. Greer summarizes the result of this movement as follows—"The educational work in Ontario has developed not only along the lines of regular monthly meetings, but into a great Extension Service. Some of the results have been—the wider use and distribution of services from all government departments, health, child welfare and education being of a special interest; additional equipment for community recreation, parks, halls, rinks, libraries; a more understanding co-operation with rural schools; the evolution of greater opportunities for the self-development

of girls; adult education; and, most outstanding of all, the remarkable development of the latent talent of the members themselves."

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Second Session

Some Aspects of Rural Education in Japan

Dr. Kwanji Sato

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(See Vol. V, P. 308)

A Philosophy of Rural Education

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It is very significant and gratifying that in a world conference on education there should be a section devoted to

education. In the first place a very large portion of the world's population lives in rural areas. But of even greater importance than that is the recognition on the part of educational leaders that there are educational problems peculiar to rural life.

Since coming to this conference, and especially after listening to the papers presented in this section yesterday morning, I decided to rewrite a part of my brief message. Many of the things I had written have been given by speakers from each of the several countries thus far represented on our programme. In our philosophy of rural education we seem to be fundamentally in agreement. I would but mention some of the common elements.

In the first place, we would all agree that both the national welfare and the rights of the individual entitle the rural child to educational opportunities enjoyed by urban children. We know that such is not now realized in practically any part of the world. But in the ultimate objective, those of us who have devoted our professional lives to rural education find our greatest challenge. There are economic reasons as well as lack of concern on the part of the general public both rural and urban, and on the part of statesmen, both professional and political, which lie back of this problem. All of these are matters which can and must be altered. I quite agree with our chairman, Mr. Pierce, that it is our obligation to exert pressure, both urgent and continuous, in behalf of rural children.

In the second place, and quite as fundamental, we are all in agreement that we desire for rural children not only the same quality but also the same goals or objectives in education that urban children enjoy. It is understood, of course, that in attaining these goals the teacher of rural children will capitalize upon the environmental advantages enjoyed and correct the deficiencies resulting from their socio-economic, educational and environmental backgrounds. Again may we state that both for national well-being as well as for the sake of the rights of the individual, it is essential that for rural children there be the same objectives in education as those

held for urban children. Difference in birth rates in urban and rural areas, and the rapid advance in agricultural science and methods mean that the rural areas can, both to their own and to the cities' advantages, feed into the cities a continuous stream of new and more virile blood. For that reason a common goal and quality of education is necessary for both rural and urban children.

On the third point we are in entire agreement, and that is, that the teacher is the chief factor in bringing about his common goal and quality of education. In very few parts of the world today are rural teachers on a basis comparable with that of urban teachers. For instance, "The rural teacher is the most immature, inexperienced and insecure of all. He has had the most limited education as measured in terms of high school and college attendance. He has the minimum of administrative and supervisory guidance and safeguards. His work is seldom supplemented by that of specialists in art, music, physical education, health services or social welfare. He uses textbooks and supplementary materials limited in amount and quality, designed chiefly for urban needs. He is hampered professionally by a minimum school budget and personally by a meagre salary. His activities outside the classroom in the community at large are closely watched. To all these, if in the one-room school, he adds the further handicap of the discouragement of professional isolation."

For this condition there are both social and economic explanations. At the present time in my country, the National Education Association is conducting a survey of the economical and social status of rural teachers. (Rural is defined to include those in the open country and in communities under 2,500 in population.) I have here a copy of the schedule used should any of you care to see it. You will note I mentioned both social and economic status, using social first for emphasis. While equal or higher salaries for rural teachers as compared with urban teachers do attract comparatively more able teachers to rural schools, the social and professional life afforded by cities still attracts an undue proportion of the most able teachers.

While we do not expect to revolutionize our rural schools by means of the results of the survey we are now making, we do expect thereby to make another step forward. The results of the survey will, of course, be published in the usual professional manner so much approved by research workers. But of much greater significance than that report, we feel certain, will be the popularization of the information gained. Through small simple pamphlets dramatizing the information by means of graphs and brief, non-technical statements, we hope to reach the general public with our message. Since arriving here in Tokyo, I have received the first of this series of pamphlets, "Rural and Urban Schools." I shall be very happy to have any of you who may be interested examine this pamphlet following the session. This is an illustration of but one of the means that may be used to bring pressure to bear upon the general public and professional authorities for improvement of the educational opportunities enjoyed by rural children.

To the three points of general agreement which I have already mentioned, I would add two others, which to me are fundamental in a philosophy of rural education.

Many times I have heard in my own country the idea expressed that we should concentrate our educational efforts upon the children with the thought that time will remove the older people sooner or later from the scene of action and responsibility. Now we see the weakness of that argument. However fine their education, children cannot progress far beyond the sympathetic understanding of the home and community. Of the truth and significance of this fact, our American neighbours to the South, the Mexicans, were well aware when they set up their federal rural education programme which has had so much influence and which has consequently aroused much world-wide interest in the last few years. It is because of my conviction of the importance of including attention to the home and community, as well as the school, that I have come to have great interest in adult education and parent-teacher association movements. The attitude prevailing in the home and community may do much to modify or even nullify the teachings of the schools. In that bit of

differentiated training which I believe should characterize the preparation of teachers for rural schools I would have unfailingly have included preparation for work with the parent-teacher or home and school association; also emphasis upon the responsibility, at least in the larger school centres, for adult education.

In the same connection and for the same reasons, I may say that though I believe firmly that local rural communities cannot afford for their children adequate schools and therefore they should and must have national support or aid, yet at the same time I am convinced that responsibility for the management of the rural school should rest with the local community. Unless there is local responsibility we cannot expect the sympathy, pride and concern needed if the education provided by the schools is to function.

Urban people are constantly bombarded by propaganda—using that word in its best sense—in newspapers, posters, lectures, etc., creating among them an understanding and appreciation of the schools. In Kyoto recently I attended a moving picture theatre in which one film was devoted to showing the need for elementary education. Even though I could not understand a word, either spoken or written, yet so skilfully and entertainingly was the message presented that I could not mistake it. Urban people are constantly subjected to such forces. To supplement the limited amount of such in rural life, we need the greater emphasis upon adult education, parent-teacher associations and local responsibility for schools.

I shall take time for but one other point which I consider fundamental in a philosophy of rural education. When we are gathered together in a section of our own, one senses but little of the inferiority complex which we show when in general education sessions. Because of the economic and social advantages enjoyed by the urban schools and teachers, we seem among ourselves to accord them a professional prestige which keeps us from duly asserting the rights of rural children in the educational councils. We often appear to react as though we felt that a small school meant a small

and significant responsibility. Far be it from that! Some of our leading rural educators have pointed out that a good teacher in utilizing the techniques and principles of the newer education may create in the one-teacher rural school an almost ideal elementary educational institution. Unless our field can command the attention and respect of our own profession in proportion to the social significance of the task we have in hand, we cannot expect to keep pace with urban schools, nor can we expect to attract and hold the most able teachers. We need to hold our heads high, expecting—and I am sure receiving—the deference which is due those responsible for the formal education of over one-half the world's children, and through the well-being of each nation in itself as well as in the family of nations.

Equalizing Educational Opportunity

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Education is on the right track and is headed in the right direction. Schools around the world are better than ever before. Nations differ in the philosophy of government, but every nation seeks (as all nations have sought) to promote and maintain its form of government by means of the education provided for its people. The plea of this paper is that educational opportunity be equalized within nations everywhere and the hope of the writer is that it may soon

be equalized among nations both large and small. There are many changes that must be made in existing educational systems before equality of educational opportunity for all its citizens can be realized by any nation.

Analysis shows that these changes fall into five categories:

- (1) Changes in educational philosophy.
- (2) Changes in sociological attitudes.
- (3) Changes in curriculum offerings.
- (4) Changes in methods of presentation.
- (5) Changes in administrative practice.

1.

We should have a complete change from the static philosophy upon which schools were formerly founded to the dynamic philosophy required by modern biology, psychology, sociology and other sciences. At the time most schools were established, the nations were given to the idea of formal discipline as the approved psychology and to authoritarianism in morals and religion. The curriculum was made of those subjects that would teach us to memorize, to remember, and to reason. School was a preparation for life, and the good student was the one who did what the teacher told him to do—a kind of “theirs not to reason why, theirs but to do and die” situation.

This happened to coincide perfectly with former ideas of the authoritarian church doctrines and tenets. It also found ready adoption in the home organizations. Thus, backed by so powerful a triumvirate as the home, the school, and the church, the old conception has survived and is even today strategically entrenched in many a textbook, course of study, and teacher's practice. However, the gauge of battle has been thrown down to this old static way of viewing things, and the most significant battle of civilization is now raging throughout the world to determine whether we shall be guided by the old philosophy or a philosophy of change. Prediction is usually unsafe, but it seems inevitable

that the newer philosophy shall enjoy the victory. It fits in with the present interpretations of science as our best thinkers in both church and state make them. These schools that are fashioned in accordance with a dynamic philosophy are affording their students greater opportunity than those still constructed along the old lines. To equalize opportunities under the two systems the old will have to come to the new.

2.

Education, generally, needs to change its attitude toward the school as a social institution. The school is too often considered as *the* educational institution; whereas it is only one of the educational institutions in the world today. Snedden says in *What's Wrong With American Education?* "the first thing that is manifestly wrong is that there exists nowhere any documented analysis of the actual or expected contributions of these various agencies to the sum total of the education of any given individual, hence the residual, complementary or supplementary functions of the school can only be guessed at." Carl C. Taylor in his *Rural Sociology* says, "The task of teaching little children is not the sole task of education. Nor is the school the sole agency of teaching. The agencies of education consist of all technologies, or techniques, by means of which ideas and experiences are transmitted from one person to another. As a matter of fact schools play a relatively small part in the total learning process of humanity." The best schools everywhere are now administered with proper relations to other educative agencies. To make opportunity really equal, schools not so oriented will have to catch the larger sociological conception of their functions and make the necessary adjustments.

3.

The curriculum of most schools will have to be radically changed if the poorer schools are to afford equal educational opportunities with the best that we have. These changes

are the most profound that are taking place. The changes, however, are demanded by the change in philosophy that is taking place. Collings in his *An Experiment With a Project Curriculum* seems to have found a way for increasing the opportunity of our schools. The revelations of modern psychology, brought to the level of popular understanding by our testers and measurers, call upon the curriculum makers for ceaseless variations. As Mencken says in his *Notes on Democracy*, "men differ inside their heads as they differ outside. What intelligence tests teach is borne out by immense accumulations of empiric corroboration." Bertrand Russell's plea in *Free Thought and Official Propaganda* for the "spread of the scientific temper" must also be reckoned with by these who are to bring our poor schools up to the level of the better ones. Dr. Wm. F. Russell in his Edinburgh address published in *School and Society*, Vol. 22, has given a good discussion regarding those who shall make the curriculum for our schools. After paying his respects to legislative curriculum construction, to centralized national control, he declares for local control of curriculum affairs. He, of course, sees the danger of narrowness that is thus involved; but he wants a saner opinion regarding the treatment in public schools of controversial issues. The demand is upon the schools to get rid of the "dead stuff" and to give us a curriculum in keeping with modern philosophy and psychology. Some schools have done this; others must do it to equalize opportunity.

4.

The method of teaching goes hand in hand with one's philosophy and his curriculum. Hence as changes are demanded in those fields, we must have corresponding changes in method to equalize opportunity in the schools of the world. In this respect every teacher would do well to read Kilpatrick's *Foundation of Method*. Many schools now operate on the idea that "school is life," that the way to learn to benefit by freedom is to be trained in the uses and ways of freedom,

that the particular item that a pupil learns is often less important than "the concomitant learnings" that accompany it. The biggest change in method will accompany the idea on the part of the teacher that she is teaching boys and girls instead of arithmetic, grammar, social science, etc. Corollary to this change will go other changes from the idea that she is teaching a body of thought rather than a course of study. The whole conception that learning consisted in memorizing facts to be *recited* before the teacher, went out of the better schools with the old psychology, and the new method based upon learning by doing took its place. The new schools with the ideas of individual differences, of school as a part of real life, of the small importance of subjects and the great importance of youth, of the idea that schools are charged with the task of orienting boys and girls into the life of their society are greatly superior in the educational opportunity they afford their students. Schools lacking these conceptions need to be changed if method is to do its part in equalizing opportunity.

5.

There are ten desirable changes in the field of school administration if that administration is to do all that it can to make educational opportunity equal.

(1) The public *free* school should be made a reality. All supplies required for instructional purposes, all necessary expenses of school excursions, extra-curricular activities, medical examination and other integral phases of the school programme should be provided for students at public expense. Equality of educational opportunity can be nothing more than a pretty phrase until this policy prevails. Some will object to shifting to the public purse the expenses involved in this proposal; but the public free school principle has involved the idea from the first. The reason it was not carried to its logical conclusion by being embodied in our practice lies in the fact that in the beginning of the public school system the teacher's salary constituted practically all

the expense of education. The cost of supplies was quite negligible, there being so few required. Today the situation is quite different. The incidentals per pupil per year run so high that many parents find it sacrificial to meet them, while others never realize that such expense exist. The net result of the continued practice of individual student purchase of school supplies is to increase inequality of educational opportunity. This manifests itself in three ways: (a) many children of poor parents never enrol in school; (b) others attend only when forced to do so by attendance laws; and (c) many, including most of those in group two, attend without ever having proper supplies, thereby being forced into an unequal competition. Public treasuries should provide all instructional materials, thus helping to equalize opportunity as between the rich and the poor.

(2) Provision should be made for free competent medical examination for each school child at least once per year. Both common experience and scientific record prove that physical defects often handicap children in their educational endeavours. Due to many causes, discovery of such defects is never made for many children when the responsibility is left to individual parents. In the face of this default of parents, whether due to ignorance, indifference, poverty, or exorbitant charges for medical service, the school, being an interested party, should see that the facts are brought to light by providing the examinations under its own direction. If remedial defects are found, they should be given proper treatment. In case parents are unable to bear the expense of the treatment without sacrificing other essential interests, the service should be afforded at public expense. In fact, not as a part of the school system, but as a separate institutional public service, there is now real need for a large number of first-class doctors and nurses serving society at public expense. Until their services are available, we can never have full equality of educational opportunity; for many children will have to pursue their studies under the discouragements of remedial physical handicaps.

(3) Changes should be wrought that would enable the

schools to function every month in the year. This can be done so as to give three distinct groups of children more nearly equal educational opportunity; (a) children whose parents engage in seasonal occupations requiring close attention during the usual set vacation period. Where there are large groups of such pupils, the schools should offer other continuous classroom instruction throughout the year, allowing the students to take their vacation during the quarter that suited their families' convenience most. This would tend to equalize opportunity for them by affording them a chance to have as free and unhampered vacation experiences as others. (b) Children who live in the crowded sections of the big cities. These do not require continuous classroom instruction, but they do need the help of the school to enable them to get off the hard-surfaced streets and out of the shadows of their tenement homes into the parks, recreation centres, the open country, and even out into regular summer camps provided and maintained by the schools. Without some such arrangement as this the vocational education of poor children in cities can never compare with that of the children of the well-to-do. (c) Children who live in the open country. It is not even desirable for this group that there should be classroom teaching. They want the school to function during their vacations by organizing and helping them to direct their social and recreational interests. They need greatly increased social contacts to equalize their experience as compared with the city youth. The extension of the school function throughout the year will help to give equality of educational opportunity to youths in every nation.

(4) There are millions of youths who for one reason or another failed to complete their secondary education during their regular day-school years. They took a job and soon realized their need for further schooling. The schools should provide some practical scheme whereby they could make up for their mistake in leaving school too early without forcing them upon the mercy of our very prosperous correspondence schools. To supply this demand and to care for the general cultural needs of the non-college group, every nation needs

a system of adult education that comprehends more than technical and vocational training. The Danish Folk High Schools, described by Joseph K. Hart in his book *Light from the North*, affords valuable suggestions. The basis for such an adult education advance already exists in the thousands of Reading Circles, Literary Societies, and Culture Clubs found in many small towns and villages. These indicate the felt need. With a little administrative help from our school executives this interest could probably be crystallized into a very significant movement in adult education, tending powerfully to equalization of educational opportunity.

5. A better means of selection of those who are to teach and higher requirements for certification in most countries are changes that are needed in equalizing educational opportunity. In some countries, notably Germany, according to Dr. T. Alexander, a very careful selection is made of those who are to go into training for the teaching profession. The Germans educate only the number that will be needed in the schools, whereas many teacher-training institutions seem to be in an enrolment competition with each other, seeking over to show a larger student body each succeeding year regardless of the needs of their states or the nation. The results are that many schools in every country are taught by unselected personnel with very inadequate training. The change advocated here would exclude all except first-class students from the teaching profession and would not permit those who are to teach to do so until they were thoroughly prepared. No other one thing would do so much to equalize the educational opportunity as between rural and urban youth in various countries as the adoption of this policy.

6. Consolidation of rural schools is helping to equalize educational opportunity in many countries. There is cause for great hope in this matter, as the chief factor encouraging it—highway construction—is spreading faster than ever before. Macy Campbell in his *Rural Life at the Crossroads* treats the Farm Life Consolidated High School as one of the chief means by which rural people may escape peasantry

and are in their proportionate share of power. He seems justified in his position, for practically all the comparisons between consolidated and non-consolidated schools are favorable to the latter both from objective physical and accomplishment standpoints.

7. The professionalization of the offices of State and county superintendents wherever they exist will do very much in equalizing educational opportunity as between rural and urban schools. Note the accumulating evidence of all school surveys and the almost unanimous expression of thinkers and writers upon rural school administration. Political resourcefulness is no guarantee or even promise of educational ability for leadership. Rid the schools of the blight they suffer through *political appointments* for educational positions of leadership and you will afford thousands of communities more nearly equal educational opportunity with the best schools of the day.

8. The extension of supervision to rural schools everywhere is a change that is most devoutly to be desired. It seems reasonable that teachers who have the hardest jobs, the poorest equipment, and the least preparation for their work, all of which is true of our rural teachers as compared with urban teachers, would render better service under supervision. Scientific evidence from studies upon the value of school supervision shows that supervision will help to equalize educational opportunity as between our two major groups of children—the rural and the urban.

9. The one change that all the others in administration wait upon is the one involving financial adjustments. The change that is needed here is one that will equalize the educational *tax burden*. Cubberley pointed out the way twenty years ago; Updegraff in his work upon the rural school survey in New York State proposed a means for accomplishing it; and Mort in his *State Support for Public Schools* gives us a well organized treatment of scientific formulae as to how it may be administered. Bagley outlines the general theory in a popular way in his article "How Shall Opportunity be Equalized?" found in the Journal of the N.E.A., 13. He

there writes: "The principle of local taxation for all schools within the local community has been clearly established. The principle of State taxation for all the schools within the State has been recognized by practically every State in the Union. With the increasing interdependence of our States...the extension of these principles is inevitable. Our rich, industrial, thickly populated States are, in the Nation, precisely analogous to the rich individual in the local community a century ago; they are precisely analogous to the rich communities in each state fifty years ago. Their prosperity depends upon the prosperity of the country as a whole; the prosperity of the country as a whole depends upon the level of intelligence in the country as a whole." This argument means that the Nation must share in the equalization of the financial burden among the States before we can have equal school advantages throughout the country. The first step, however, is to get a larger local tax unit. As Hawthorne says, "the bald fact is that many rural communities cannot afford a first-class twelfth grade school." Once we have found and secured the proper local tax unit, we shall have to require the States to equalize between these; and finally, the Nation will have to equalize between the States. This change will yield immediate results in the equalization programme.

To summarize the desirable administrative changes, I have proposed (1) to make the public schools *free*; (2) free medical inspection for all school children at least once each year; (3) to have the schools *function* the year round; (4) to provide a suitable system of adult education; (5) a more careful selection and training of teacher; (6) the adoption of the county as the local unit of school administration for all schools within the county; (7) much further consolidation of rural schools; (8) to professionalize the offices of state and county superintendencies; (9) to provide supervision for all rural schools; and (10) to equalize the school tax burden within the local units, within states, and within nations.

In conclusion, the chief desirable changes that should be made to give greater equality of educational opportunity in

the schools of the nations are seen to fall into five distinct classifications; changes involving (1) philosophy, (2) sociological conceptions, (3) curriculum, (4) method and (5) administration. Most of these changes are already in operation in our best schools and the people over the nations are energetically considering the others. We are on the right track and headed the right way, which is the important thing; for after all, the way a fellow is going is more important than is the point at which he has already arrived.

Notes on School Broadcasting in the Rural School

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When our service of Broadcasts to Schools was started in 1923, our principal interest in its development lay in the change it might make in the environment of children in the smaller rural schools, and particularly in those where all the children over eight years old are taught by the same teacher. Such children, and this is true also of children in the larger country school, have a very limited contact with educated adults, and it is not to be wondered at if their intellectual development is slower than is the case of children in towns. This is a serious consideration where the bus of educational opportunity runs on an urban time-table. Many teachers in English rural schools have told me that in their view the country child should be given one year longer than the town child before his chance of transition to a secondary school is lost to him. It is not that the town child is more able but

that the country child is slower, in acquiring his academic skills. Such teachers readily accepted the idea of broadcasting which could so greatly increase the children's awareness of other peoples' ways of thought and speech, acquaint them with good standards of performance in music and drama, and stimulate them to an immediate interest in their school studies. For all those things we knew after very little experiment that broadcasting could do—if it were used by sympathetic teachers under suitable conditions. There are no teachers now who use it extensively who do not tell us how much it enlivens the school. "It brings the children along so much quicker" they say. It was the rural school teacher also who was readiest to grasp the help that broadcasting would bring to her as a teacher. It must be the most difficult thing in the world for a village teacher to keep up her studies—to increase and revise her own knowledge year after year as she must do, if she is to keep intellectually alive. Unless she herself is stimulated by new knowledge and new ideas, the inspiration will depart from her teaching very soon. And yet, even more than the town teacher, the country teacher is absorbed by out-of-school duties, and she must find time too for her private life, her friends and her personal interests. How then can she find time for extensive reading, for planning new lessons and working out new ways of teaching old subjects. She does, as we know, very often achieve the miracle, as it seems to me, of such continued growth, but do not let us call her lazy if she turns gladly to broadcasting both for the help it gives her in obtaining the consent of the children to study, and as a source of new information and a guide in the selection of material in her own schemes of work. She accepts, too, very willingly the assistance of a specialist colleague in music or in other subjects where she is conscious of lack of natural aptitude in herself.

Actually in spite of this favourable attitude on the part of the rural teacher it has taken much longer to establish broadcasting in the rural school than in the town school. Partly this has been due to difficulties with wireless sets.

Part \ because of the fact that in early days the broadcast programme was limited to a single course in each subject treated. For some years now, however, we have had a special course for rural schools, and more recently we have developed a double range of courses so that if the senior course assumed too much background knowledge, or if it asks for too much quickness in making mental connections with other subjects, or again if the vocabulary of the broadcaster is too difficult in the teacher's view for her group, then she will use the junior courses, which are very much simpler in their construction.

And so every month more and more of the smaller rural schools are registered as listening. I am sorry not to have with me any pamphlets or recorded programmes such as would give you at once a concrete idea of the contribution that this represents to the resources of the schools. In the pamphlets the children find pictures of the unfamiliar places and things that are talked of, and suggestions that will lead to further study and self activity of one kind or another.

The guiding principle in our programme is that it should not attempt to do anything that the school may reasonably be expected to do for itself. We broadcast twenty-five courses every week so that the teachers have a wide field of choice, and there is no danger of mass production methods for it is unusual and would be undesirable in the majority of schools for individual pupils to listen to more than two or three of the courses regularly.

In rural schools the general principle is applied with some slight modification. We do have one or two courses in the programme which are built with a view to direct teaching in subjects which it is known that there are many teachers without the necessary special training. In music for example there are many schools where the teacher, as one recently said to me, did not even know when the children were singing out of tune. Now both in England and in Scotland there have been very successful broadcast singing lessons for a great many years. In one small school in Dorset where the teacher was tone deaf and there had been

no school music to speak of for a long time, the children even gained a first-class certificate in the county festival. They had followed the singing lessons of Sir Walford Davies by themselves, led by the most musical girl among them.

In rural science, too, we have been giving teaching courses for some years. Here we have had great help from the Government Agricultural Research station at Rothamsted. The women teachers in the rural schools who have had no training in scientific gardening and agriculture find this very useful, and the experiments suggested by the broadcasters are faithfully carried out in the school garden. Many fathers and elder brothers listen to these talks, and we have a story of a farmer who sent a note to the teacher asking her to let one of the older boys make notes for him when he had to go to market as his own little boy could not put down enough to satisfy him.

The special course for rural schools of which I spoke is planned to encourage studies of local environment. In next year's course the talks will deal with an imaginary village and we shall bring to the microphone typical characters from village communities who have some special knowledge or interest in some aspect of their village to tell. In the pamphlet which accompanies the course there will be many suggestions for local studies, both for the children to carry out individually and for them to undertake in groups. Out of the interest aroused in the children by these talks the teacher finds many opportunities for suggesting the application of school studies to practical life. In one school at least almost all the activities of the school proceed from the talk of the week—even in arithmetic lessons.

In many country districts the wireless has brought a new type of intellectual life into the evenings of the people. They meet in the school or in each other's houses or in the parish room perhaps to listen to talks and drama, and to discuss what they hear. Some teachers are clever in retaining the interest of the pupils after they leave school, allowing them to meet in the school house to listen, when they are free in the afternoon, to the senior courses. In this way they

keep the interest in the more significant elements in the broadcast programme alive until the time comes when the boys and girls are old enough to join the evening groups. Or they may start a wireless club, for evening listening with these older adolescents, picking out of each week's programme what is likely to attract and stimulate their former pupils. It means, as all new activities must mean, more work for the teacher, but you would find that wherever our broadcasts are used seriously the extra work is gladly undertaken, because of the extra interest and liveliness it brings to the school community.

Some Significant Phases of Rural Education in Iowa

Mrs. Margaret Mann

*County Superintendent of Schools, Prumghar,
O'Brien County, Iowa, U.S.A.*

Will you come with me, you of the Orient, cross your Pacific to the western shore of North America, and you of the Occident cross the Atlantic to the eastern shore, there about half way across the continent, between two great rivers, the Mississippi and the Missouri, is the State of Iowa, inland about fifteen hundred miles.

Today, August 4, over Iowa's 56,000 square miles the tall corn waves in full growth, the long golden ears hang like long arms from the stalks. Among the corn fields or the strictly rural areas live more than 50% of Iowa's population and more than forty per cent live in towns and cities of less than 25,000.

Iowa is a unique State, not because she produces more corn than any other state in the union or because the State

contains 25% or all the grade-one land in the United States, but because she is a State of virile, progressive people desiring education for her youth to the extent that she expends annually \$47,000,000 for elementary and secondary education, gives the rural boys and girls four years of high school without cost to the individual and has less illiteracy than any state of the union, less than one-half per cent.

Scattered throughout the State at intervals of two miles are 9,200 rural schools, and interspersed between these are 1,000 high schools, about 27 junior colleges and 25 regular colleges and universities, the largest of which are the State University of Iowa at Iowa City, the State College of Agriculture at Ames, and the State Teachers College at Cedar Falls. One-fourth of the population is enrolled in school and one-tenth are college graduates.

Now all Iowa is divided not into three parts but into 99 parts each of which is called a county. O'Brien County of which I am the County Superintendent of Schools, has 90 one-room rural schools and ten regular high schools, four of which are consolidated. There is one junior college at Sheldon and we are within the shadows of two distinctive colleges, Morningside and Buena Vista.

More than 90% of the rural schools have modern buildings with basements, furnaces and other conveniences and excellent equipment. Practically all the town and consolidated schools have strictly modern buildings. The total value of all the school buildings in the county is more than a million dollars.

Improvement of Instruction Programme

The progressive programme for the schools in these 99 counties is set up by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Miss Samuelson of Des Moines. Because of her outstanding and effective work she was elected president of the National Education Association of which there are a quarter of a million educators jointed together for the advantages of education. Were Miss Samuelson standing before you today she would say to you, "Schools are successful in terms

of the outcomes of instruction. In other words, brick, mortar, mechanics, chalk and pencils do not make a school. It is actually what happens in the lives of children, we must do it in the classrooms and through active experiences."

The Improvement of instruction programme as set up by Miss Samuelson furnishes the leadership, the core of content for special emphasis. She believes that the most essential for success in rural school work is a programme, and with this as her objective she set her soul and mind to building a definite basic programme. This programme she explained and by her inspiration and personal message furnished bulletins on specific subjects, built by capable supervisors of her department. These bulletins are guides to be correlated with the State Course of Study. They do not replace texts; they direct teachers to enrich and make more effective the experiences of their pupils.

The subjects which received special emphasis and on which bulletins were built are as follows:

(In 1931) Music.

(In 1932) Reading and Study.

(In 1933) Language and Safety Education.

(In 1934) Geography and Physical Education.

(In 1935) Maintenance Programme on Subjects Previously Emphasized.

(In 1936) History in Lower Grades, History in Upper Grades, Health, Character Education.

Music in the Cornfields

I wish to cite the outcomes in some of the specific fields which received emphasis.

First, the outcomes in the Music: On June 1 of this year at the eighth grade promotion exercises a chorus of about 400 rural pupils sang in perfect harmony the songs they had learned throughout the year. They thrilled the great audience by their perfect diction, true rhythm, precise phrasing, and beautiful tone quality. The audience was informed by the director of the rural choir and also a teacher of a rural school

that these 400 pupils had never rehearsed these songs until they came together that evening.

How could this be accomplished? By a plan which has been devised by C.A. Fullerton of Iowa State Teachers College, and which is used by all rural teachers of Iowa as well as other States and countries, and by which music is taught successfully and attractively. Every school in the county has a phonograph and records with the songs designated for each year's work, also the Fullerton Song Book. Each teacher has had instruction in the choir plan as well as having heard the demonstrations for the songs designated for the year's work. The plan is to listen at first to the songs sung by the artists and recorded on the phonograph, then gradually to participate in singing with the phonograph.

Listening proves to be the most important part of the process. It introduces the children into a musical world, there their ears are automatically engaged in the process of getting not only the melody but also the rhythm. The plan was a pronounced success from the beginning. Every time a child heard a song he heard it correctly. The sense of rhythm was also developed through physical movements standardized by the phonograph. The teachers who were untrained in music grew along with the class. The teachers and pupils just by learning one song after another accurately and beautifully became surprisingly skilful. In order to be a member of the choir each pupil must be able to sing accurately with the phonograph each song listed for the work.

On the choir chart the teacher indicates by a plus sign that the pupil has successfully passed the test. A minus sign indicates that he must work a little longer and try again. The chart is returned to the county superintendent. The pupils having passed the tests are eligible to sing in the county choir and also to receive credit and a certificate from the Department of Public Instruction. On two occasions groups of 4,000 sang in a huge chorus at the state fair and on another occasion a group sang at the World's Fair at Chicago.

Landscaping

A new as well as a significant phase of rural education has been the project of landscaping the rural school grounds. Through our State Agricultural College at Ames we were able to secure the services of a landscape architect. He came to the county to sketch the school grounds where the teacher and community were most interested. After the architect returned to the college blue prints were made for each school ground and sent to the school. In the spring the shrubs were purchased and the landscape architect returned to assist with the planting. He knew that the joy of landscaping lay in doing the work, so he demonstrated to the boys and girls and those of the communities who had come to watch and learn the principles of planting and pruning, and they proceeded with the work.

The plantings usually covered a three-year period. The first year the planting about the school house was done, the second year the large plantings about the border of the grounds and the third year the plantings in between the large plantings. Walks and parking space for automobiles were essential parts of the plan. Maximum beauty combined with maximum utility, knowledge of the basic principles of landscaping and development of appreciation were the essentials stressed. O'Brien County has twenty landscaped schools and expects to add some each year.

Rural Teachers' Club

Another significant development in our county has been the organization of the rural teachers' club to which 100% of the teachers belong. This rural group is affiliated with the Iowa State Teachers' Association. Delegates are sent to the State convention each year and they report to the entire group. Every month meetings are held for demonstration and work in the fields which are receiving the emphasis. There are subdivisions within this county group known as township clubs

which consist of from ten to twelve teachers. They meet for professional reading, the setting up of lesson approaches, lesson checks and outlines. This year the township groups met for the writing of semester tests in all subjects above the fourth grade. They also reviewed the examination papers and set up the remedial work which should follow.

Iowa Plan for Character Education

Desiring that boys and girls of Iowa not only be informed but also patriotic, God-fearing, participating American citizens the State Department of Public Instruction set up a character-guidance programme which is an attempt to bring to the needs of every individual child every resource available.

It is an activity programme integrated into the school programme. In the rural and graded elementary school from the fourth grade to the junior high school inclusive it is carried on through organized clubs.

The purpose of the club is growth in character and in service to school, community and state.

After discussion of the purpose of the club the pupils set up the goals, the State schools and community goals include an infinite variety such as landscaping, caring for the school grounds and equipment, study of civic institutions, conservation, safety and other projects pertaining to school, community and State.

The new feature is the personal goals. These are classified as goals in social conduct, in worthy home membership, and in spiritual growth.

In the social conduct goals, the direct responsibility of the teacher is courtesy, good sportsmanship, thrifty, honesty and other desirable traits.

In worthy home membership the teacher in conference with the mother helps the child set up worthy goals learning the attitudes and duties necessary for happy home life.

The goals in spiritual growth came as the result of the practically unanimous belief that every worth-while character programme must have as a base some form of religion, reverence

to God, faithfulness in religious duties, respect for the convictions of others in matters of religion being essential parts of Christian character.

The school does not attempt to teach religion. The responsibility of the teacher is to see that every child is brought in contact with the pastor or the priest of the family's choice. To date we have found that while many families do not have church affiliation they do have church preference.

Each faith group does have a definite programme for the education of its youth and in our state all the churches are preparing the clergy to undertake the work.

The pastor with the pupil set up the spiritual goals. As the pupil advances in years it becomes a matter of personal counselling rather than group work.

The work of the altruistic groups, such as the 4-H, Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls, may be carried on as part of the programme, but since no single group contacts more than ten per cent, the classroom teacher who comes in contact with all must be the person through whom the programme is mediated.

Each club keeps a record. This includes a statement of all accomplishments, honours won by the members of the club, participation in choir contests, and all worth-while accomplishments. The programme is a long-time project so that eight years may mean a real development in character. It will mean the most sympathetic understanding of every parent, pastor and teacher.

Health Programme

The health programme as set up by the Department of Public Instruction stressed the principles that a school must be a wholesome, happy place in which to work and that teacher and pupil must enjoy themselves and show definite accomplishment because of increased efficiency. Recognizing these vital principles a bulletin was prepared under the direction of the State Department of Public Instruction in co-operation with physicians, nurses, physical educators, dentists, and other

health agencies of the State. This health bulletin was put into the hands of every teacher. A bulletin on physical education set up a definite programme to be carried out in every school. It included rhythmical activities, stunts, combats, team games, relays, and other activities. Achievement records of this programme are kept by the teacher and filed at the office of the county superintendent.

The Iowa Dental Plan was set up by the Bureau of Dental Hygiene at the University of Iowa and functions effectively in most of the 99 counties. The plan is to educate every child to care for his teeth through proper diet and oral hygiene. Again the teacher is the key to the success of the programme. She encourages as well as records the achievement of the work. At the beginning of the school year the teacher distributes the yellow dental card which requests the parent to take his child to the dentist. If the dentist finds no corrections are needed he signs the card on the first line. If corrections are needed he signs on the second line after having made the corrections. When the pupil returns the card signed by the dentist the pupil's name is placed on the dental honour roll. When every pupil's name is on the dental honour roll the teacher forwards the cards to the county superintendent who in turn reports this to the Bureau of Dental Hygiene and a dental certificate is sent to the school.

Gold stars signify the number of years the school has been on the dental honour roll. Some certificates have seven gold stars. This year 49 of the 90 schools were on the dental honour roll. Sometimes only one child keeps the school for the dental honour roll. The co-operation of parents, teachers, and dentists has made this dental plan successful.

This county has the services of a full-time county nurse. About 100% of all the children in the county have been protected against diphtheria and a large per cent against small pox. With the assistance of the Parent-Teachers' Association and other agencies interested in health the nurse supervised what we call a "summer round-up." It is the physical examination of every pre-school child who will enter school in the fall. By having the examination in the spring or

summer, time is given for the correction of any defects which may be found. Thus may our young children enter school without physical handicaps.

Co-operation

The phases of work as carried on in the rural schools are also set up in the town schools. At the beginning of the school year, town superintendents meet county superintendents to make plans for the improvement of instruction in carrying out the designated work as set up by the Department of Public Instruction. Arrangements are also made to have specialized workers in the designated fields.

Under the direction of the regional director, plans are made for demonstration programmes which include work in classroom procedure in as many as twelve subjects, both grade and high school. Teachers of unusual ability are selected for these demonstrations and outstanding nationally recognized authorities speak on some definite phase of work. Last year six counties worked together at a central point. This year the demonstration conference will include only three counties.

The plan of demonstration classroom procedure was an outcome of the fact that theory had progressed more rapidly than the practical classroom instruction. This method of placing emphasis on better teaching through actual experience is securing excellent results.

The newspapers of this county are a vital factor in the advancement of education due to the fact that one page is given to school news each week; also many pictures and excellent editorials make understanding and appreciative communities more devoted to the best standards of education.

The county superintendent of schools has for her advisors a County Board of Education comprised of six citizens from different parts of the county who are chosen for a period of six years by the presidents of the school boards of each district. The members of this board are all highly qualified. Their greatest responsibility is the task of adopting the text-

books which are used uniformly throughout the county. They also select the library books and advise the county superintendent upon matters referred to them.

These phases of rural education we call significant but the most important of all is that our boys and girls have good scholarship, healthy bodies, and sound principles of character.

Fishery Education in Japan

Viscount Masuzo Nomura

President, Teikoku Suisan Kwai, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 312)

Rural Education in the Philippines

Dr. Gilbert S. Perez

*Superintendent of Vocational Education, Bureau of
Education, Manila, P. I.*

Public instruction in the Philippines has been from its very inception a problem of rural education. Except in the three urban centres, Manila, Iloilo and Cebu, the great majority of the Filipinos make up an essentially rural population. Even in the small towns, the homes are in most cases merely the town dwellings of farmers who spend a greater part of their time in the fields, in their plantations and farms.

During the greater part of the thirty years of American occupation, the rural aspects of education were recognized,

farm schools were established and gardening and club work was made a part of the primary and elementary course. In the school garden, the school shop, and on the school grounds, activity projects which influenced the attitudes of the pupil towards work and industry were made a part of the curriculum. No rural boy or girl can finish the intermediate and primary grades without having had at least two years of general gardening, shopwork or home economics. In the secondary schools, however, the rural needs of the country had to be partly sacrificed for a more pressing and greater immediate need which could not be postponed.

As the avowed policy of the American government was to gradually train Filipinos to take charge of the government machinery, the major efforts of education had to be given to the training of teachers, civil service workers, government officials and professionals who were to take the place of the Americans and the new places which would be created by an ever-growing economic development. The rural needs of the country were not forgotten but they had to be temporarily relegated to a secondary place in the educational programme.

For schools on a secondary level, purely academic schools offered the best and the cheapest means of training the vast army of teachers, employees and professionals. This need together with the prevalent ideas on labour and on working with the hands, an inheritance from the Spanish régime, made it appear that the entire system had a marked academic bias.

Filipinos formerly had few opportunities to enter the professions or to take part in higher government activities and naturally those who succeeded were held as heroes and leaders of the race. Humble toil was considered for a long time as below the dignity of anyone who could read and write. Education was still looked upon as a means of living on the labour of others. American pedagogy with promises of professional position and participation in the government, created an urge to the easier and more genteel means of gaining a livelihood. When the schools were first established it would have been foolhardy to offer the masses either rural, urban, or a narrow industrial programme. They

wanted something which they thought was better. It was fortunate indeed that the demand for academic education was not denied and that vocational and industrial education was introduced gradually. In fact it may be said that it is academic education which has made the later vocational and rural development possible.

It is true that there were school gardens and that there were a few small rural and agricultural schools; but the academic high schools, until about 1930, were the gateways to employment and to economic independence to thousands who previously had no hopes of ever leaving their rural homes. Parents sacrificed their last stand of cocoanut trees and their last rice field in order that their sons could finish the academic course which would enable them to occupy a government position or to prepare themselves for the professions which at that time were not over-crowded.

Sooner or later it was expected that there would be a change in attitude towards labour and working with the hands. This constant change expressed itself in many ways. At first the intermediate graduates were accepted as teachers and into the civil service but gradually, as the number of high school graduates increased, only high school graduates were accepted for these positions. Intermediate graduates who went back to the farm refused to do farm labour as they considered it beneath their dignity, but as the number of intermediate graduates increased like grasshoppers, the intermediate graduate, because of necessity, began to take more interest in the plow and the saw. The same development took place in the case of the high school graduates. They would not lower their dignity by working with their hands but as the enrolment in high schools increased from 4,405 in 1913 to a rather alarming 89,000 in 1936, they also had a change of heart. Obviously such an army of high school graduates could not expect to be absorbed into the government service and as the teaching force was limited to normal school graduates which also closed another avenue, the high school graduate had to turn also towards the plow and the work bench.

In 1909 it would have been impossible for a high school graduate to drive a truck but now the Philippine School of Arts and Trades has enrolled over 700 high school graduates in short two-year courses in Automotive, Radio, Stationary and Marine Engineering and Building Construction. At Muñoz there are many high school graduates who are also taking two-year agricultural courses.

Secondary academic education has already made its contribution to the building of the Philippine Commonwealth but now, if democracy is to continue, the Philippines must break away from any system or systems of education which work for an aristocracy based on traditional academic evaluation. As long as academic concepts are held uppermost, as long as financial reward for academic efficiency is placed above pecuniary and other rewards given for similar efficiency in vocational and technical fields, just so long will the youth of the country hold before themselves a false conception of values, and a false and detrimental attitudes towards work and labour in a working and labouring world.

The question which now confronts the Filipino people is that they cannot use large idle agricultural farm products and cannot fabricate from these products articles of higher value unless its workers are trained in schools which are established with positive vocational objectives. It is because of this that the Commonwealth Government proposes to establish a large number of regional schools of the Muñoz type.

The Muñoz Agricultural School in Central Luzon is not merely a school, it is a symbol, a symbol of the future of the country when, through improved and more enjoyable rural surroundings, the majority of the young people will be trained as economically independent members of a progressive and a forward-looking republic in the Far East.

Muñoz is a million-peso plant, housing nearly a thousand secondary students. This year more than four hundred applicants had to be rejected because there was no place for them in the school. The school is on a one-thousand hectare site and is completely equipped with recitation buildings, a rice mill, a sugar mill, a bakery, poultry and swine houses,

a hospital, a library, a bank and with teachers' and student-farmers' cottages. The boys come to school with thirty pesos which they deposit in the school bank for their necessary expenses before they are able to earn enough for their expenses. The school is divided into two groups—one group working in the fields from six a. m. to one p. m. while the other group is in the classroom. In the afternoon they change about. It is a half and half proposition, study half a day and work half a day. The student farmer lives in his own cottage, prepares his own meals, has his own garden in addition to his rice or sugar project, and when he graduates he usually has two or three hundred pesos in his pocket to begin his life as a real and practical farmer. I have seen better agricultural colleges in other countries, but in all of my visits to Europe and America I have yet to see a secondary school that equals the one at Muñoz.

Muñoz is a school of tomorrow and not a school with a curriculum that is made up of an agglomeration of subjects for the student to store away, semester, and then exchange them for a parchment diploma. It has a curriculum consisting of a programme of life activities, life bearings, living responses and living concepts of civic righteousness and economic self-sufficiency. It is not a place where the boy is merely prepared for life—it is a school where education is actual living, a place where the school activities approach as nearly as possible the living conditions in a rural community.

The question that confronts the new Commonwealth today is whether its education shall continue along the paths of extreme academic indigestion caused by misconceptions of real educational values, or whether it shall develop a sane, scientific plan of vocational education based upon a positive national plan of economic development which conforms to the present-day dynamic, working world. Our leaders of today have definitely embarked on a plan which has in view the economic development of the country which shall give to its people the greatest amount of happiness and well-being.

The problem of our rural vocational schools is not merely one that concerns instruction. In most of the trade schools

and in all of the agricultural schools the task is not only to provide instruction but to provide at the same time, opportunities for the students to earn while they learn. If the earning element were to be eradicated as in the case of the academic schools the problems of these schools would not present as many difficulties as they do now. However, these schools are the only ones where the sons of poor parents can obtain a secondary education without placing burdensome financial hardships on their parents. Conditions in the Philippines are such that not many opportunities for self-help are available to either secondary or college students. As financial troubles come to the average provincial family, they find it increasingly difficult to finance their children through four years of secondary school instruction. That may be one of the reasons why there has been such a large enrolment in these self-supporting agricultural schools. Working half a day and spending the other half day in school not only appeals to poor boys who cannot expect help from their parents but also to the sons of the wealthy who have a sincere and a positive interest in agricultural and industrial pursuits.

God does not give a country to a people for them to leave it idle forever. He gives it in trust and whether the people shall deserve to keep this trust depends upon the use which they make of it and the plans which they develop for the efficient use of its natural resources. If they are not willing to make the most of these gifts, if they want to sit down while others develop them, if they want to become a nation of absent landholders and leave their lands and interests to be developed by others, they will lose their patrimony. The Filipino leaders now realize that it is not enough for a people to have potential resources. What is of greater importance is for them to take advantage of these resources.

The second important problem that should be considered in planning for the economic and social well-being of the country is that which concerns the utilization of its citizens for work to which they as individuals are best adapted. From the earliest times and even among the existing primitive tribes, the very survival of the tribe depends upon the

number of individuals who have acquired those skills which are necessary for the existence of the tribe as a tribe. Although their wants are very simple, even these necessities cannot be obtained unless there are enough men in the tribe who by training and experience are able to obtain them. The strong and able-bodied are trained to hunt and to do heavy physical labour while the weaker members are assigned to tasks best suited to their weaker physiques. The makers of arrows and of bows and spears are just as important to the tribe as those who use them. Any kind of training which permits the waste of human effort, whether it is in a primitive or in a civilized group, is detrimental to the welfare and progress of that group. The Philippine Government now realizes that it is of utmost importance to curb the trek of youth away from rural communities. Efforts are now being exerted to keep some of the brighter ones in these communities which need them the most. We have found by experience, however, that this cannot be done by mere preaching, and that invectives against the white collar complexes are nothing but a waste of time and energy. Besides, there is nothing essentially wrong about the right type of white collar complex. It is the proper white collar complex that has placed the American farmer and the American workers so far above the workers of some other countries. The average American workman will work eight to ten hours in the fields, in the hot factories and in the mines in order that he may go home, bathe in a tiled bathroom, don a white collar and have a pleasant evening with his family in wholesome surroundings. There is nothing wrong about a white collar complex if attached to it is a willingness to toil all day so that the family can enjoy the fruits of that labour. The white collar complex that is both fatal and fatuous not only in the Philippines but everywhere is that which gives the young people a white collar complex on an empty pocket book—a white collar which has not been earned but which has been provided for them by over-generous parents.

The future of rural education in the Philippines is indeed very bright for all now realize that there can be no develop-

ment of the vast areas of uncultivated land unless there is a large number of schools of the Muñoz type, schools which shall give to the country thousands of scientifically trained farmers and workers.

With some of our best agricultural schools transformed into larger and more effective schools of the Muñoz type, and with the establishment of other entirely new regional rural high schools, the secondary school system will make a great contribution to the development of a Philippines that is not only a politically but also an economically independent new nation in the Far East.

Election of Officers

The Section elected as Chairman

Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce

and as Secretary

Dr. Wm. McK. Robinson

Resolutions

The following resolutions were adopted:

1. The Rural Education Section desires to reiterate strongly its conviction that rural children should receive equal opportunities with the urban children in the field of education.
2. It is agreed that the teacher is the chief factor in securing adequate educational opportunities for child-

ren. Consequently, this Section urges the World Federation of Education Associations to encourage educational authorities to recognize this fact and take such measures as will guarantee well-qualified teachers for all children wherever they may reside.

3. It further recommends the World Federation of Education Associations to take every opportunity to urge upon all governments the desirability of open-air schools, playfields, grounds, parks and other amenities in the rural areas of their respective countries.
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The following suggestion was made by the Chairman:

"You notice these young people at this table here recording every word that is spoken, so let's hope you haven't spoken anything out of place—any of you—or else this will be held up in condemnation of your actions. But it is a remarkable sign of the progress that has been made in Japan during the last fifty years that they can dispense altogether with reporters, that they can have these as a final record and to keep them for all time to show to future generations what the opinions of the teachers of 1937 were when they assembled at Tokyo in Japan. Now I have got a suggestion to make. I don't want these records confined to Japan. I should like to suggest to the Japanese Education Association that they should send the records to the countries affiliated to the World Federation, so that the teachers in those countries can hear what we have been saying in Japan and also help the cause of rural education forward in the various countries of the world. Now I am not going to propose a resolution, because it means money. I am simply going to point out as a suggestion. Will you, ladies and gentlemen, approve of it as a suggestion and not as a resolution?" (This suggestion was approved unanimously.)

Contributed Papers

**Rural Life and Agricultural Education
in Poland**

Polish Organization Committee

General Conditions of Land Holding

Poland is an agricultural country. Sixty-four per cent of its population are engaged in agriculture, forestry, and fishing; 73% live and work in the country.

There are 3,262,000 agricultural holdings occupying 37,895,000 hectares. The area covered with forests amounts to 8,322,000 ha.

The large number of very small holdings are often insufficient to feed the owner's family, because they cannot be worked in a normal way, impairing thereby the general economic and cultural progress of the agricultural population.

The task of improving the material conditions and, with them, the educational and cultural level of the inhabitants of the country has been under way and will continue to be one of the chief cares of the Polish Government. The difficulties of dealing with this problem have been greatly enhanced by the fact that no systematic efforts in that direction were possible in the course of the long years during which Poland was not an independent State.

As soon as this country recovered her independence in July, 1919, the Polish Diet passed a law on land reform. This law is being carried out by the Polish Government. It entails much work and considerable financial efforts, but has already brought about a distinct improvement of the situation. From the enactment of the law on land reform to the year 1936, the activities connected with bringing it into practice have given the following results:

1. *Parcellation.*

Nearly 2,400,000 ha. of land have been divided, partly into independent holdings or else to increase the size of inadequate holdings. The number of independent holdings thus created amounts to 1,256,500; the number of additional lots added to very small holdings amounts to 882,500.

2. *Work in connection with the re-grouping of holdings.*

Area of re-grouped land in ha.	4,051.8
Number of re-grouped holdings	588.8
Number of holdings derived from the buying out of vested rights	256.9
Area in ha. of land received for vested rights	572.6

3. *Regulation of the course of streams and canals
and drying up of marshes, etc., on an area of* 362.5

The activities connected with the carrying out of the land reform are systematically undertaken by the Ministry of Agriculture which pays special attention to the material needs of the newly organized holdings, the owners of which are granted long term credits out of Government funds.

Agricultural Education

In Poland agricultural education is carried out by means of the following:

1. Permanent agricultural schools for boys and for girls
2. Itinerant agricultural schools
3. Periodical courses and lectures on the various branches of the economic activities of the country
4. Agricultural training
5. Professional agricultural libraries
6. Model farms
7. Professional papers
8. Excursions, exhibitions, and demonstrations
9. The wireless, etc.

The bill concerning agricultural schools was passed by the Diet on July 9th, 1920. According to this law there

should be two agricultural schools—one for girls and one for boys—in each district. The expenses of these schools are actually borne by the State, the district authorities, or the agricultural chambers. It is, however, the duty of the district authorities to organize and maintain agricultural schools. The Government gives them State land to that effect. It also grants them a subsidy of $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total sum of expenses connected with the building and the fitting up of such schools according to the plans and estimates accepted by the Ministry of Education as well as a long credit State loan bearing an interest of 3% up to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the said cost. Moreover the State pays the teachers of the district agricultural schools.

The whole course of teaching in the public district agricultural schools for boys or for girls lasts for one year. It consists of lectures on theory and practical exercises in the estate belonging to the school.

Lower agricultural schools aim at training individual farmers and their wives and at bringing up citizens fully aware of their duties towards the country. These schools take day and boarding pupils.

In addition to permanent schools owning a farm there are itinerant schools, both for women and for men. These schools do not own a farm or a school building, but give $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 months' courses in various rural localities. Itinerant schools are organized by the State or district authorities in districts where permanent agricultural schools are not yet in existence.

In addition to the schools just described, the teaching of rural economy outside school is organized by the following:

1. Agricultural Chambers
2. District Authorities
3. The Central Organization Society and Agricultural Circles
4. Numerous professional, agricultural, co-operative, and social organizations

Agricultural Chambers were created in 1928. They now function in all the voivodeships. They deal with agriculture,

breeding, horticulture, forestry, and other branches of production connected with the improvement of rural economy.

It is the duty of Agricultural Chambers to organize and maintain agricultural schools and to spread agricultural knowledge outside the schools.

Agricultural Chambers undertake some activities themselves and also co-operate with and supervise the local authorities and social organizations acting in their respective voivodeships.

The economic and educational tasks of the Agricultural Chambers are undertaken by a qualified personnel organized in the following manner:

1. Agricultural Chambers keep trained inspectors who control the various branches of rural economy.

2. District authorities and social organizations employ professional inspectors who carry on their duties in their district according to the plans and directions set by the inspectors of Agricultural Chambers.

The work of these Chambers is divided into the following sections:

1. Plant cultivation: experiences concerning plants, the protection of plants, seed selection, and farmers' competitions.
2. Horticulture: orchards, seed-plots, kitchen gardens, industrial plants, medical herbs, and apiculture.
3. Pastures: problems dealing with the cultivation and the improvement of meadows and pastures.
4. Animal breeding: the breeding of horses, cows, pigs, sheep, poultry, and fish.
5. Rural husbandry: political economy, the organization of markets and close collaboration with agricultural or dairy co-operatives, etc.
6. Agricultural training: the Chambers help the junior agricultural associations to organize competitions among rural youth.
7. The Country Woman Section deals with all activities to elevate the social and economic status of the country woman.

8. The Educational Section collaborates with all the other Sections within the Agricultural Chamber and with all organizations dealing with general or agricultural education. Its chief tasks consist in the following:

- (a) Organizing lectures and courses for rural inspectors and social workers.
- (b) Organizing libraries, containing books on agricultural and social work.
- (c) Organizing excursions.
- (d) Drawing up the programmes of courses organized for the rural women or agricultural circles, etc.

The whole programme of general and rural economy instruction carried out by the Agricultural Chambers and social organizations is adapted to the needs of the following three groups of the rural population:

1. Rural youth of both sexes, not possessing their own farms.
2. Women working on their own or their husband's farm
3. Men owning their own farm.

Agricultural instruction is actually given to independent farmers in agricultural circles and to women in country women circles.

In Poland women have the same rights as men and possess a great share of responsibility in raising the level of the education, culture, and prosperity of the country.

The work of country women is treated as a profession which must be taught. In her farm a woman organizes and carries out numerous activities, and she feels the need of being prepared for her task. In order to meet this requirement, the country women circles give instruction on bringing up children, household economy, the hygiene and the culture of everyday life in their own family and their surroundings.

The activities of the country women's associations can be divided into three fundamental groups. The following are their aims:

- (a) Raising the level of women's work.
- (b) Spreading agricultural education.

(c) Facilitating the sale of the products of women's work

Rural youth constitutes a very important and active group of the rural population, and are very eager to improve their general and agricultural education.

The training of rural youth is carried out in groups by inspectors. The programmes of individual groups are adapted to local needs and circumstances, but the following are their common aims :

1. Teaching rural youth a feeling of solidarity and training them in team work.
2. Organizing and looking after agricultural and social libraries, courses, guilds, popular theatres, choruses, excursions, etc.
3. Organizing competitions to promote agricultural efficiency, health, interest in serious reading, etc.

Agricultural training constitutes the chief care of rural youth associations. Its development is highly satisfactory as regards both quality and quantity.

The elevation of the agricultural level by means of competitions started in 1926. In that year there were 35 associations with 202 members. In 1935 the number of associations amounted to 8654 with a membership of 70,756.

The drawing up of programmes for rural youth belongs to the Central Committee for Rural Youth Questions, which works out directions, programmes, rules, sends round publications to agricultural circles, and sees to their relations with other organizations.

The following methods are being used for the education and supplementary training of rural youth: lectures, publications, personal contact, excursions, exhibitions and shows, and the wireless which broadcasts special lectures for the countryside on the problems of the moment.

Side by side with district and professional bodies, social organizations take a great share in the spreading of education among the agricultural population.

The expenditure for agricultural education reaches a considerable sum. The following are the sources from which contributions are made :

1. State subsidies.
2. Communal rates.
3. The income of agricultural organization.
4. Private subsidies.

Agricultural schools are controlled by the Ministry of Education and the spreading of agricultural education outside the schools by the Ministry of Agriculture and Agricultural Reform.

Agricultural Education in Poland

Polish Organization Committee

Agricultural Education includes agricultural and horticultural schools and courses of various types and grades.

1. Agricultural schools of the lower type have as their object the practical training in agriculture of independent farmers, both men and women, and the farmers' wives. The lower schools are divided into (1) 11 months, (2) two winter schools (three semesters), (3) itinerant schools, and (4) special ones. The preponderating type is the eleven-month school, and it is the intention of the school authorities that there should be one agricultural school for men and for women in every district. The duty of establishing and keeping up these schools rests with the Local Government District Unions, the State, and the Agricultural Chambers. The didactic programme of the eleven-month schools consists principally of practical instruction in agriculture facilitated by work on a farm owned by the school, which provides a framework for the practical instruction of the pupils, and which is a centre of local work for the teaching staff. The schools are residential and constitute a centre for the educative activities of the school. Two winter schools (three semesters) exist

chiefly in the western voivodeships and are designed for the children of farmers having their own farms; instruction in these schools is of a more theoretical nature. During the summer vacation, the teaching staff is occupied with work on the estate, care of former pupils, and with organizing the spreading of agricultural notions. The two-winter schools belong to the Agricultural Chambers. The itinerant schools exist only in the eastern voivodeships. They either work in connection with a permanent school or own a farm. There are six special agricultural schools, viz., dairy produce (3), poultry breeding (1), rural co-operation (1) and fruit and vegetable growing (1) schools.

The following table will give a general idea of the lower agricultural schools :

Type of School	Division		TOTAL	Run by			
	Men	Women		State	Local Board	Chambers	Private
1. Eleven-months	50	46	96	21	46	6	23
2. Two-winters	20	—	20	2	—	18	—
3. Itinerant	3	7	10	10	—	—	—
4. Special	4	2	6	2	—	1	3
TOTAL	77	55	132	35	46	25	26

According to the statistics of 1934, 3480 young people attended the lower agricultural schools. It should be mentioned that, in spite of the economic crisis, the influx of youth to the agricultural schools, far from diminishing, is on the increase. This is a result of the growing interest taken by rural youth in organizations promoting agricultural progress. Youthful organizations are mostly run by the teaching staff of lower agricultural schools and also by

former pupils of agricultural schools acting as organizers of various agricultural competitions. Young people who have already left rural primary schools are now being organized with a view to social and agricultural activities. The agricultural schools play an important part in organizing and co-ordinating local efforts in this respect.

2. Secondary Agricultural Schools

These have a three-year course of instruction and give, in addition to careful practical training, theoretical knowledge of the work in peasants' holdings and farms. With the exception of the school in Bojanow (Pomorze Voivodeship) all the others have their own school farms. To enter secondary agricultural schools, pupils are required to have completed four classes of the general instruction secondary school of the former type.

The programme of instruction is not uniform in all secondary agricultural schools. For instance, in Grudziadz (Voivodeship of Pomorze) the school gives instruction in agriculture and cattle-rearing; and in Zyrowice (Voivodeship of Nowogródek) the school has two divisions: agricultural and forestry. There are altogether 7 secondary agricultural schools: 6 State schools for men and 1 private school for women (in Chyliczki). After finishing the secondary State agricultural school and after a year at least of organized school practice, the graduates take an examination and receive a certificate.

3. Higher Agricultural Schools

There are two higher agricultural schools: one for men and the other for women, both based on the programme of 6-class secondary general instruction school of the former type.

(a) The State Higher School of Agriculture in Teschen (Voivodeship of Silesia).

(b) The Private High School of Agriculture for Women in Snopków (Lwów Voivodeship).

These schools have their own farms and give more extensive and exhaustive preparation, both practical and theoretical. On finishing these schools graduates receive the title of cer-

tified agriculturists, are qualified for entering the first grade of the Civil Service, and can also find employment as teachers in lower agricultural schools. The women's school is divided into agricultural, breeding, horticultural sections, as well as house-keeping, sewing, and dressmaking sections. The latter sections are compulsory in all women's agricultural schools, from the lowest upward.

4. Horticultural Schools

These schools are divided into three principal types. The gradation of the programme of instruction for different types is similar to that for agricultural schools.

(a) Lower gardening schools are based on the programme of the elementary school. Instruction in the lower gardening schools has a pre-eminently practical character, as it is given in the school garden. All kinds of practical work on the estate of the school constitute the foundation of the training and of the didactic programme, theoretical lessons being given on an average 3 to 4 hours a day.

There are altogether 3 lower gardening schools, of which one has a two-year course and two others three-year courses.

(b) Secondary horticultural schools are based on 7 divisions of the elementary school or 3 classes of the gymnasium of the former type. Altogether there are 5 secondary horticultural schools: 2 for men, 1 for women, 230 educational. Their complete course lasts for three or four years. Their programmes are very similar. There are 4 schools with a three-year course and 1 with a four-year course.

Training is given simultaneously in theoretical and practical directions. These schools have their own estate with all sections of gardening serving for the practical training of the pupils.

On finishing school, the pupils receive a certificate with the title of "Technical-Gardener," and have the right to enter the second grade of the Civil Service.

(c) Higher Horticultural Schools

There is only one school of this type: the State Horticultural School in Poznań. This school receives candidates

who have finished 6 classes of the secondary general instruction school of the former type. After passing the final examination, graduates receive the title of "Certified Gardener" and have the right to enter the first grade of the Civil Service. The school has two divisions: (1) practical gardening and (2) ornamental gardening. It is supplied with model laboratories, workshops, and school farms; it also cultivates a botanical garden of 18 hectares open to the school youth of all types in the town of Poznań.

SCIENCE AND SCIENCE TEACHING SECTION

Chairman: Dr. Keita Shibata, Dean, Science Department, Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo, Japan.

Acting Chairman: Dr. Kiichi Miyake, Professor, Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo, Japan.

Secretary: Dr. Otis W. Caldwell, Boyce-Thompson Institute for Plant Research, Yonkers, New York, U. S. A.

Assistant Secretary: Mr. Harry A. Carpenter, Specialist in Science for the Rochester Schools, Rochester, New York, U.S.A.

Co-operating Member: Dr. Tamao Fukui, Professor, Tokyo University of Literature and Science, Tokyo, Japan.

Place of Meeting: First and Third Sessions, Room No. 22; Second Session, Meiji Seimei Building.

First Session *Wednesday, 4th August, 9a.m.-12(noon)*

Second Session *Thursday, 5th August, 9a.m.-12(noon)*

Third Session *Saturday, 7th August, 9a.m.-12(noon)*

First Session

**The Present Status of Science Teaching in
Elementary and Secondary
Schools of Japan**

*The Japanese Preparatory Committee of Science
and Science Teaching Section*

Arranged by

Dr. Isaburo Wada

*Professor, Tokyo University of Literature and
Science, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 316)

**The Perfection of Secondary Education
in the Philippine Islands**

Dr. George Lucas Adamson

*President, Adamson School of Industrial
Chemistry and Engineering,
Manila, P.I.*

In connection with the teaching of technical subjects in the secondary schools, I have the honour to state that the Department of Public Instruction of the Philippine Government approved and encouraged a modern curriculum submitted by me as President of the Adamson School of Industrial Chemistry and Engineering in June, 1934 and the results

Science and Science Teaching Section



Dr. Keita Shibata
Chairman



Dr. Kiichi Miyake
Acting Chairman



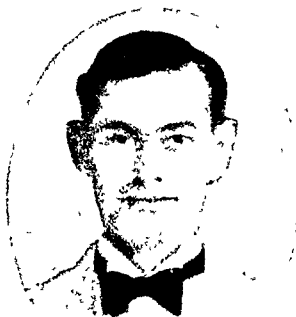
Dr. Otis W. Caldwell
Secretary



Mr. Harry A. Carpenter
Assistant Secretary



Dr. Tamao Fukui
Co-operating Member



Mr. George Lucas Adamson
(See P. 326)



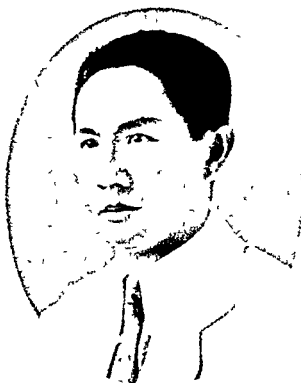
H S A. Prince R. B. Sonakul
(See P. 356)



Dr. Philos R. Lyngnes
(See P. 331)



Mr. W. H. Jenkinson
(See P. 337)



Mr. Nemesio B Mendiola
(See P. 347)



Dr. Ava B. Milam
(See P. 369)



Dr. E. A. Cockefair
(See P. 385)

for the graduates from the academic and technical point of view have been excellent.

The Adamson School of Industrial Chemistry and Engineering includes in its departments the Adamson Technical High which corresponds to the four-year Academic High School and embodies, besides the academic preparation, the features of practical instruction in Industrial Chemistry necessary to prepare the student for the completion of his technical education or to enable him to earn a living.

Upon finishing the four years, the graduate will have studied the academic and technical subjects of the following:

First Year—English Composition and Literature

(40 minutes daily)

Industrial Mathematics I (Elements of Algebra)

(40 minutes daily)

General History of U. S. History and Government

(40 minutes daily)

Elementary Chemistry I (General Inorganic and Analytical Chemistry) (80 minutes daily)

Physical Education (1 hour daily)

Second Year—English Composition and Literature

(40 minutes daily)

Industrial Mathematics II Plane Geometry

(40 minutes daily)

Elementary Physics (80 minutes daily)

Elementary Chemistry II (Organic Chemistry)

(80 minutes daily)

Physical Education (1 hour daily)

Third Year—English Composition and Literature

(40 minutes daily)

Industrial Mathematics III (Adv. Alg., Rev. Arith. and Trigonometry) (40 minutes daily)

Elective H. S. Soc. Sc. (40 minutes daily)

Industrial Chemistry I (Tech. Anal.)

(80 minutes daily)

Physical Education (1 hour daily)

Fourth Year—English Composition and Literature

(40 minutes daily)

Industrial Chemistry II (40 minutes daily)

Elements of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering
(40 minutes daily)

Industrial Chemistry III (40 minutes daily)

Physical Education (1 hour daily)

In the fourth year under the subjects Industrial Chemistry II and III correspond to the following elective specialization courses:

1. The Manufacture of Sugar.
2. The Manufacture of Animal and Vegetable Oils, Fats and Waxes.
3. The Modern Soap and Detergent Industry.
4. The Manufacture and Uses of Glycerol.
5. The Manufacture of Leather and Tanning.
6. The Manufacture of Varnishes.
7. The Preparation and Technical Utilization of Casein.
8. The Essence Industry.
9. The Preparation of Perfumes and Cosmetics.
10. The Making of Wines, Liquors, Alcoholic Cordials and Compounded Spirits.
11. The Manufacture of Aerated Beverages, Cordials, Non-Alcoholic Brewed Beers, Carbonated Mineral Waters and other popular Beverages.
12. Industrial Alcohol—including the Production and Use of Alcohol for Industrial Purposes, for Use as an Illuminant and as a Source of Native Power.
13. The Brewing and Malting Industry.
14. The Meat Packing Industry.
15. The Marine Products of Commerce—including their Acquisitions, Handling Biological Aspects and the Science and Technology of their Preparation and Preservation.
16. The Making of Starch—including the Manufacture of Dextrin, Starch Sugar, Syrup and Sugar Colouring.
17. The Distillation of Resins and the Preparation of Rosin Products, Resinates, Lamp-Black, Printing Inks, Type-writing Inks, etc.
18. The Commercial Fruits and Vegetable Products.

19. The Manufacture and Application of Dye-Stuffs and Coal Tar Products.
20. The Application of Dye-stuffs to Textile, Paper, Leather and other Materials.
21. The Manufacture of Absorbent Cotton (Surgical Wad-dings).
22. The Rayon Industry.
23. The Manufacture of Paper.
24. The Manufacture of Paint—including the Decorative and Protective Paints for Paint Manufacturers, Architects, Painters, Decorators, etc.
25. The Application of Cellulose, Lacquers and Enamels.
26. The Manufacture of Bone Products and Manures—including Fat, Glue, Animal Charcoal, Size, Gelatine and Manures.
27. The Manufacture and Industrial Application of Explosives.
28. The Destructive Distillation of Wood.
29. The Preparation of Drugs.
30. Mining—Metallurgy and Assaying.
31. The Ceramics Industry.
32. The Manufacture of Glass.
33. The Manufacture of Earth Colours.
34. The Manufacture of Industrial Gases and their Liquefaction.
35. Chlorine and Chloring Products—including the Manufacture of Bleaching Powder, Hypochlorites, Chlorates, etc.
36. The Manufacture of Sulphuric Acid and Sulphur Products.
37. The Salt and Alkali Industry.
38. The Rare Earth and Radio-Active Substances Industry—including the Manufacture of Incandescent Mantles, Pyrophoric Alloys and Electrical Glow Lamps.
39. The Manufacture of Cement.
40. The Utilization of Waste Products.

The beneficial character of the combination of Academic and Technical Training should be particularly considered. Upon graduation from the secondary Industrial Chemistry Course, the graduate will have equipped himself with the

theoretical and practical training sufficient to enable him to start a business of his own, or to find lucrative employment as a technical employee in a mining or manufacturing concern. Or, if he wishes to continue his studies along advanced lines of technical education, he will have prepared himself with great facility for the courses in chemical, industrial, civil and mining engineering. On the other hand, if the graduate from the secondary Industrial Chemistry Course believes that some other sort of career is desirable and he decides to take up law, medicine, commerce, or some other profession or trade, he is fully eligible for entrance in the universities or colleges.

In conclusion, it is believed that by the arrangement of the curriculum at the secondary Industrial Chemistry Course embodying technical training in such an effective way, another great step has been accomplished towards the perfection of secondary education in the Philippine Islands.

The Standard Equipment for the Scientific Education in the Elementary Schools

Mr. Masaji Hirose

School Inspector of Tokyo Prefecture, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 364)

Biology as an Educational Subject

Dr. Philos R. Lyngnes

Eidsvoll Higher School, Eidsvoll, Norway

What I have to say to you today concerning biology as a science, as an educational subject and as a means of attaining human solidarity will, I am afraid, be of a brief and rather scattered nature.

The fact is that my English is none too good, and that I did not think I was coming here until just before my departure from Norway.

I have occupied myself a good deal with the study of biological science, have taught biology for many years as a school subject, and have had to do with young people both as an open-air teacher and as house-master of a boarding school.

During these years it has become increasingly clear to me that education in my own country lacks the central subject which should give the young a *reliable knowledge and view of life*. And gradually it has also become clear to me that a principal subject of this kind must be founded upon concrete reality and therefore emanate from our inductively confirmed knowledge of life; in other words, it should be a simple and suitable condensation of *biological science*.

The present occasion does not allow of my showing how the study of the organism, of environment, and of the interaction of organism and environment place the human being, as an individual and member of society, simply and naturally in his proper place. Nor does the present occasion allow me to show how *biology* could and should be the scientific background behind the attitude of life, the attitude to society, the behaviour, and the life-aims of the young.

I will confine myself here to pointing out that biology as a science and school subject can serve as a fundamental

instrument to secure the objects which stand in the programme of the *World Federation of Education Associations*.

Tolerance and friendship between different creeds, nations, and races may well grow up in the close association and collaboration of international congresses such as ours. But if they are to create a world opinion these international undertakings must be able to frame an *ideology* which is so simple that every individual can understand it and so reliable that no one can question its truth.

The science of biology provides the natural basis for an ideology of this nature.

Here, again, I must refrain from going into detail. But I will touch quite briefly upon one or two aspects of biology, in order to show what I mean.

We know that comparative anatomy, comparative physiology and comparative psychology have traced out the *biological table of descent*. That all life on this planet has been evolved from one original primitive form and that the human race is but a small branch on the tree of evolution, are established biological facts.

But when we say that man—*homo sapiens*—is a single branch of this gigantic tree, it shows in the simplest fashion that we are all near relations of one another. It shows us that the people who are now separated into classes, into nations, by language, by religion, or by race, are merely a little ramification from the same bud, and that, genetically, we are all members of the same family. Regarded biologically, all human beings can be united by virtue of the ties of blood, and these ties can be realized by giving the teaching of biology a larger place in the school.

Biological reality has, however, another aspect. Alongside of all the germinant organisms and the teeming forms of life stretch dark, life-destructive shadows. The unavoidable interaction of the organism and its environment has always been and still is in many ways *the great biological tragedy*.

The *inorganic* environment is indifferent to the needs of the life process. Changes of climate and Nature's catastrophes pay no heed to the laws of life which govern the organism.

The *organic* environment is, generally speaking, directly interested in the death of the organism. The tragedy of the pathology and ecology of the organism culminates at the many stages of the system where life can be maintained only by taking other lives. Thus the saying that one man's breath is another man's death contains a profound biological truth.

And this truth must no longer be concealed from the young, for the general laws of biology hold no less for mankind than for all other organisms.

Biology as a school subject will show the young that it is not other classes of society or other nations or races that are our enemies. The root of the evil must be sought in the biological claims of the organism upon the environment and the biological claims of the environment upon the organism.

Biology as a school subject will be able to make it clear to all that this is the great tragedy of the organism and therefore of man as well.

The consciousness that all of us share the same destiny, that we one and all are confronted by the same enemies of life, is a biological common trait which should furnish us all with a motive for cohesion and sympathy.

But in thus directing mankind to the root of the evil the science of biology can fortunately point also to ways of escape from this evil. Now these ways can to some extent be both created and followed by the organism itself, and here we come to the actual possibility of inward and outward progress, in other words, to *biological adaptation*.

In the case of man, education is part of this process of adaptation. The history of education is the history of the species, which has methodically exploited and directed its regulatory power of adaptation, adapting its own organism to the given environment.

Not only so, but ways of progress can also be traced in the environment itself. At any stage in the system the organism can intervene in the environment and to some extent change or adapt it to the needs of the organism. This is the adaptation of the environment by the organism.

This ability to adapt the environment is nothing less than

a revolution in the organic world. It is along this line that the organism so often emerges victorious from the battle of life. Along this line mankind has progressed further than any other species on earth in the protection of the life process.

Biologically the history of human civilization is not only the history of the species adapting itself to the environment, but also of the species intervening in the environment and adapting it to its own needs by its work. It is this capacity which has enabled man to occupy practically the whole surface of the earth, and which has secured for the great majority of mankind those factors of environment which were absent from the natural surroundings in the various latitudes.

Against this biological background man's superior equipment for the conservation of life appears in its true light, and it is this common trait of humanity that should furnish a firm basis for universal solidarity and co-operation.

The fact that we are all members of one family, that we are all actors in the same tragedy, that we all have the same enemies within and without, that we all have the same point of departure and the same objective, should afford a strong underlying motive for a *united front of humanity*.

The science of biology can furnish biology as a school subject with material for the environment of ideas—the ideology—which will embrace and unite mankind.

A *biologically orientated ideology* is in accordance with the actual world. For many it may lack the magic of gorgeous colouring, but it has the advantage of being sound in composition. A biologically orientated ideology will stand any logical criticism, because it is an extract of inductive knowledge.

An ideology of this kind has in many ways the same value for people that a working hypothesis has for the scientist. Its usefulness decreases with its deviation from reality. An unreal ideology may, of course, be directly useful to the individual and the individual group possessing it; but the action it will motivate in the concrete environment will ultimately lead its adherents into a blind alley.

We who have met here with a programme of tolerance and

friendship for mankind at large have, as it were, learnt by bitter experience. We have seen individuals and groups of people consuming each other in revolutions and world-wars. Today we see them arming again for similar and perhaps far greater catastrophes.

How often we see classes, nations and races in conflict with each other, impelled by old tradition, inflamed by new fanaticism. Very frequently people are driven to collective disaster by purely accidental mental states and chance forces.

Is it not reasonable, then, that *we who are teachers*, and whose daily task it is to adapt the young for a richer and safer mode of life, should rise up and call for planned and secure lines of advance outside as well as inside the school?

Is it not reasonable that *educationists* should rise in protest against the planlessness and the chaos in international relations, and insist upon adaptation there as well?

In so doing we cannot but be glad that we have the science of life—modern biology—on our side, and that biological facts systematically presented as a school subject will be capable of giving everybody the ideology which we need in working for the solidarity of mankind.

This cannot, however, be brought about in a day. To establish a collaboration between biology and pedagogy, to employ the results of biological research as a medium of adaptation in education, to create a new generation of youth adapted for a united human front, will be a lengthy process.

A biologically orientated pedagogy, a biologically orientated social conscience and view of life, biologically orientated national and international ethics—these are objectives which lie ahead.

But supposing we could even now get the pupils in all schools to *pause* occasionally in order to *recognize* and *accept* the logic and nobility of a constantly expanding radius of tolerance and friendship among men, we should at least have made a beginning, and the beginning would have the wide range which of necessity it must have.

If the present congress leads to such a beginning being made in the schools of our respective countries, our coming together here will assuredly not have been in vain.

**The Relation between the Local
Education (Heimaterziehung) and the Nature
Study in the Elementary Schools
in Japan**

Mr. Junji Ōta

Professor, Peccresses' School, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 395)

**The Training of Science Teachers
in Japan**

Mr. Raikichi Kuwaki

*Bureau of School Books, Department of
Education, Tokyo, Japan*

Dr. Shutai Okamura

Professor, Keio University, Tokyo, Japan

Dr. Tamao Fukui

*Professor, Tokyo University of Literature and
Science, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 407)

Second Session

Science in English Secondary Schools

Mr. W. H. Jenkinson, B. Sc.

Central Secondary School, Sheffield, England

(Read by Mr. G. R. Parker)

The English secondary school system has grown out of the old grammar schools which based their curriculum upon the study of classics and mathematics. Right down to the middle of the nineteenth century science was either entirely ignored or tolerated in a half-hearted fashion. Such attempts as were made to introduce it into the school curriculum met with opposition and the funds necessary for the provision of laboratories and apparatus were not readily forthcoming. The nineteenth century however produced a number of eminent scientists who laboured incessantly to remedy this state of affairs. Such men as Huxley and Faraday were indefatigable and effected much, but as far as science in the secondary schools was concerned the outstanding protagonist was Canon Wilson, later Headmaster of Clifton College who in 1867 published his book which went far to found the study of science in secondary schools.

In this book he emphasized the importance of distinguishing between scientific information and training in science. The value of both these aspects was recognized but he held that the scientific habit of mind, which he considered to be the principal benefit resulting from scientific training, could be better attained by a thorough study of the facts and principles of one science than by a general acquaintance with many.

The thorough study of any science necessitated the provision of adequate laboratories, lecture rooms and equip-

ment and progress was often delayed, especially in private and endowed schools, by lack of funds.

The influence of Canon Wilson was definitely on the side of laboratory work with lectures to elucidate and classify the facts learned by experiment.

At the same period Huxley was inspiring his pupils by his series of brilliant lectures. His aim was to lead his pupils to form a clear mental picture of the order which pervades the multiform and endlessly shifting phenomena of nature by commencing with the familiar facts of daily experience and proceeding step by step to a study of remoter objects and less readily comprehensible relations of things.

Under his influence the study of Physiography, the systematic description and scientific discussion of the general properties of our earth and atmosphere was commonly undertaken, especially in Evening Classes where the pupils prepared and sat for the examinations of the science and art department. Much of this work was done without any laboratory work in lectures illustrated to some degree by experiments and demonstrations. At this period schools of science were being established as one form of secondary education in which the study of Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics was pursued.

The balance of the course was upset by the too great proportion of time devoted to science subjects but later a regulation that not less than 13 hours per week were to be devoted to literary subjects did something to remedy this defect. Thus at the beginning of the twentieth century when the great expansion in the English Secondary School system commenced the idea of "Training in Science" was again in favour and the study of specific sciences to a more advanced stage was general. Also it was accepted that the proper method of teaching science was through experiments done in the laboratory with lectures to elaborate the theory in connection with these experiments.

Mention must be made here of the enthusiastic advocacy by Professor Armstrong of the Heuristic Method, a specific type of laboratory training in which pupils were expected to discover all facts for themselves by means of experiments.

Whilst the "make-belief" associated with many of these experiments and so-called discoveries and the very slow rate of progress prevented the complete adoption of this system, yet its advocacy played an important part in securing a more adequate provision of laboratories in the many secondary schools which were established after the passing of the Act of 1902 and in the extensions and modernizations made in many of the old Grammar Schools. This provision of laboratories was, however, chiefly for teaching Chemistry and less frequently for Physics as far as boys' schools were concerned and for Botany in girls' schools.

The institution in 1917 of the First School Certificate examination to be taken at about the age of 16, with its group system requiring a success in Mathematics or a Science to secure a certificate caused an enormous increase in the numbers of those studying science.

Thus in 1936 of the 76,856 candidates for the First School Certificate 28,863, merely 37.6%, took Chemistry; 27,163, 35.3%, took Physics; and 27,359, 35.6%, took General or Biological Science.

Thus it is clear that a large percentage of the candidates offered at least one science and a considerable number offered two.

The preparation for these examinations usually takes four or five years. Often the work in the first two years is of a general character and may take the form of nature study, especially if the course is for five years. After this the course is generally divided into Chemistry and Physics. The time devoted to the work is usually about 3 or 4 periods per week of 40 minutes during the ages $10\frac{1}{2}$ to $12\frac{1}{2}$ and 7 periods per week during the remaining years if two sciences are taken. The time is usually allotted in a double period, i.e., 80 minutes, during which practical work may be done in the laboratory and one or two single periods for theory work for each science taken. After the First School Certificate Examination the pupils who remain at school enter an advanced course. If this is the Science or Mathematics Course a larger amount of time is devoted to science.

Thus 8 to 10 periods may be devoted to Chemistry or to Physics. In this way candidates may be expected to reach the standard of a University Intermediate Examination at the end of the two years taking 3 or 4 subjects.

In 1936 there were 3,534 candidates who presented Physics at the Second School Certificate and a similar number took Chemistry.

During recent years a distinct movement has been made towards introducing more Biological Science at both stages.

This change is due to a demand that the science course shall not confine itself entirely to inanimate matter but shall also concern itself with life and the experiences of life.

To meet this demand there has been an enormous increase in the number taking Biology. Thus in 1927 at the First School Certificate, out of 54,953 candidates 13,731 (chiefly girls) presented Botany and 105 Biology, whilst in 1936, 9,736 took Botany and 13,467 Biology out of 76,856 candidates taking the whole examination. Those taking Biology included a number of boys. In the Higher Certificate or Second School Certificate Examination the corresponding numbers were, in 1927, Botany 411, Zoology 177, and Biology 66 out of 8,200 candidates. In 1936, Botany 655, Zoology 451 and Biology 543 out of a total of 11,270 candidates, i.e., 8% of the candidates took some form of Biological Science in 1927 and 14.6% in 1936.

At the same time there has been a determined attempt to break down the water-tight barriers between the various sciences and to present a general view of science to all pupils. It may be admitted that in the case of students who are going to the universities to study science after leaving the Secondary School it may be as well to secure a thorough grounding in Physics and Chemistry at school if Biology is to be commenced at the University.

But in the case of the pupils who leave the Secondary School at 16 and do not take any more science it is submitted that it is unjustifiable that they should leave without any idea of the applications of science to the problems of life. There have been, therefore, attempts to formulate syllabuses

in General Science seeking some unifying principle around which to frame a syllabus in which divisions into Physics, Chemistry and Biology will be unnecessary. Whilst these attempts have not been wholly successful,—the syllabuses usually split up into the three component parts—yet there has been a slow advance in the numbers taking General Science at the First School Certificate Examination. Thus in 1927, 1,356 (2.5% of the total candidates) took General Science whilst in 1936 the number was 4,156 or 5.4% of the total. This increase, combined with that in the number taking Biology as a separate subject indicates the change coming over the teaching of Science in the schools. At present this change is hindered by the lack of teachers able to take all branches of the work and by the lack of laboratory provision for biological work. At the same time there are still many who feel that the best training in science can be given in the study of Physics and Chemistry which afford the greater measure of control of experiments and a simpler relation between cause and effect.

One other point I wish to mention. No subject in the curriculum provides more opportunities than Science does for bringing before the pupils the achievements of other races in the field of human knowledge. Science knows no national boundaries. Its discoveries become the property of the whole human race. Its very nomenclature commemorates the work of men of diverse nations for the common benefits of mankind. The teacher who is imbued with the true scientific spirit will unobtrusively keep before the minds of his pupils this universality of science and will thus play his part in bringing them to realize that friendly co-operation on equal terms is possible among nations to their mutual advantage.

This paper has dealt only with Science teaching in Secondary Schools in England. In the Elementary Schools science forms an essential part of the curriculum at all stages. The elementary school child cannot be expected to progress far in the more abstract regions of scientific thought or in the more technical applications of scientific

few years of its operation it underwent considerable modification. Ireland is an agricultural country. The people derive their living mainly from the land. About 20 years ago a strong public demand was put forward for the introduction of courses of instruction which would bear a close relation to the ordinary pursuits of the people, and since that time, and especially during the last 10 years, very considerable attention has been paid to the teaching of what is called "Rural Science and Nature Study." This subject is now compulsory in all Irish elementary schools and as it is the branch of science teaching to which most attention is given in Ireland, I may be pardoned if I dwell particularly on the work which is being done in the elementary schools. It is not easy to define in simple terms the aim and purpose of rural science teaching. It is not intended to be vocational, but it should serve to deepen the child's interest in the world around him; it should appeal to the senses and thereby develop habits of careful observation, enquiry, and clear thought. It should stimulate particularly an interest in natural phenomena. Under whatever name the subject is presented, the object is the same, namely to supply a concrete medium for the general development of the intellect and the character of the pupils, and which, at the same time, will bring their education into close relationship with their lives and surroundings.

In Ireland these characteristics pursue Rural Science Courses through secondary or continuation education, as well as in the primary school, no particular branch of natural science unduly predominating at any stage. This is the mainspring of the subject throughout, that it should pursue a general study of all the natural sciences, without becoming vocational, and without becoming specialized, or overcharged by any.

The teaching of agriculture as a vocational or semi-vocational subject in primary schools is not regarded in our country as being appropriate. The essence of agricultural pursuit, like horticulture, is profit, but boys and girls of primary or even secondary school age are not, or should not, be concerned with profit and loss. They are tremendously

interested in things and happenings, but not with the profit or loss associated with them. Children are continually asking questions of themselves and of those around them, and it is the answering of simple questions on the natural things around them, backed by appropriate demonstrations that constitute the very bedrock and substance of Rural Science teaching in primary schools.

Rural Science or Nature Study Courses are prescribed for town and city children as well as those living in the country because it is felt that children reared in urban surroundings will benefit quite as much from such a course as country reared children will. A simple course of this kind, suitably demonstrated, will serve to develop a set of faculties in city children that may otherwise remain blank.

For this reason we believe that Rural or Natural Science teaching should be pursued in industrialized countries as well as in countries that are largely rural, in the one case, as a corrective against the restricted artificial surroundings of the town, and in the other as a great practical—even if an indirect—foundation for later teaching on the economic cultivation of the soil.

Rural Science is the natural practical foundation of agriculture, and it is in this way, by indirectly laying this foundation in primary, secondary and vocational schools and classes that the Irish Department of Education most effectively helps and co-operates with the Department of Agriculture in the service of farming.

Rural Science or Nature Study was made an obligatory subject in the Training Colleges in 1912. Previous to that time special courses for teachers were provided by the Technical Branch of the Department of Agriculture. Seven Preparatory Colleges for the general or intermediate education of teachers have been established since 1925. Each of these Colleges accommodates about 100 students, all of whom include the Leaving Certificate course in Rural Science during the whole of their four years' preparatory training. Women students subsequently take this subject during their final year in the Training College and men students during both

years of their Training College Course. All these courses in Rural Science are practical, merit being assessed at each stage by a practical, as well as an oral and written test.

Rural Science was introduced into some of the schools in Ireland in 1912. It was not, however, until 1926, that it was made obligatory. Rural Science is also a subject for instruction and examination for the Leaving Certificate course in our Secondary Schools.

The primary schools' programme in Rural Science is divided into three sets of two-year courses, that is, one set for boys' schools at which there is a suitable plot of ground available, a second two-year course for boys' schools where no school plot is attached, and a third two-year course for girls' schools.

The course in Rural Science which is taught to fifth and sixth-grade pupils embraces, for boys, a simple study of matter, air, water, soil, plant-life, hygiene, the person, clothing, bacteria, antiseptics, wild birds and local natural features; and for girls, an appropriate, but more restricted course on the same lines. Where small plots of ground are available they are utilized as part of the Rural Science equipment, that is, to illustrate practically and impress the laws of plant growth and other features of life and soil that cannot be so successfully demonstrated at a table. While the Department of Education desires that wherever suitable ground is available, it should be utilized for this purpose, the Department does not encourage extensive cultivation. One of the official regulations says, "the school plot should not, except under special circumstances, exceed five hundred square yards. Even a much smaller area than this will fulfil the requirements of a school plot."

The Department of Education provides free, indoor equipment, comprising a miniature science outfit for the carrying out of simple bench or table demonstrations, to all schools in which the subject is taught. The Department also provides outdoor equipment consisting of light spades, forks, etc., to those schools in which Rural Science proper is being taught, that is, to these schools at which there is a

suitable plot of ground available. A packet containing some thirty different kinds of seeds, etc., is also provided free each year.

The Department continually urges the imperative necessity for demonstrating every lesson. Somewhat elaborate explanatory notes are issued in booklet form by the Department for the guidance of the teachers describing close to three hundred simple appropriate demonstrations.

With regard to science teaching in the Secondary Schools, I shall only say that the usual courses found in the curricula of such schools in most other countries are pursued during the five or six years which the pupil spends in the Secondary School. Some 40 or 50 years ago Irish Secondary Schools devoted much more attention to classics than to science. That point has not been reversed and since the establishment of our native government and the intensive industrial development which has followed, very great attention has been and is being devoted to applied science in our Secondary Schools and Universities. The manufacture of sugar from beets may be cited as an example. We now supply practically all our own requirements in sugar. In the early years it was necessary to employ chemists from Belgium and Czechoslovakia. That, however, is no longer necessary. Our four sugar factories are now staffed by Irish chemists. In our national university there is a Faculty of Agricultural Science and also a Faculty in Dairy Science. Butter and other dairy products constitute a large element of our export trade. These faculties supply science teachers to the Secondary Schools and carry on a considerable amount of research work. Notable work has been done, for instance, in the matter of plant breeding—new varieties of wheat, oats and potatoes specially suited to our Irish conditions and climate have been successfully raised at the experimental station at Dublin. Much useful work has also been done in the investigation and prevention of plant diseases. There is a general desire among the people of the country, and this is stressed by the Department of Education, to extend the teaching of science in all schools and to make better pro-

vision for its teaching both as to the amount of time to be devoted to it and the extent of the courses to be covered.

Film Demonstration

The following two films were introduced by Mr.
Harry A. Carpenter.

"Formation of Soil."

"Science Teaching in the Rochester Schools."

Science Teaching in the Philippines

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Educators should find the Philippines a good field for the development of science education. The country is very young in many respects. For example, while it has attained a high degree of political maturity, it is quite behind in agricultural and industrial developments. It seems the country has not felt very appreciably the effect of this backward condition of our agriculture and industry because it produces several important export crops and products which the United States of America import free of duty, and with the income obtained from these products and with what it has been producing for local consumption, it has been able to maintain an economic stability. However, within a few years we expect

full political separation from America, and, with this separation, this country plans to deprive us of the free trade privileges which we have been enjoying. This means that our products will have to compete in world markets without protection with similar products which are being produced at much lower costs. Unless the Philippines is allowed to retain some of its present free trade privileges or to have some favourable reciprocal trade relations with America, it is very necessary that between now and the time of the withdrawal of such privileges the country accelerate the development of its agriculture and industries. And in this gigantic task we are counting very much on science for effective assistance.

While our people are eager to acquire education and have proved their ability to do so, only a very small percentage of the population receive science instruction because not all who want to enter schools can be admitted for lack of school facilities and teachers, and of those who are lucky enough to secure admittance, many leave schools before they reach the grades in which science instruction begins. Very little science education is given to those who are outside the schools. Every now and then specialists in different branches of knowledge and science give lectures through the radio or publish popular scientific articles in the press. From these lectures and articles and from other sources people outside the schools receive some instruction in science. But it is very little. This kind of instruction is still to be organized and carried out systematically in the Philippines.

Without regard to special local problems such as I have pointed out for the Philippines, I believe that in these days of rapid development in the application of scientific discoveries and inventions in numerous fields of human endeavour, it should be the aim of educators and scientists alike to give a broad scientific background to all, not only to those who are inside the schools but also to those who are outside, at least in such branches of knowledge as are involved in the wars against superstition and ignorance which affect adversely the health and the basic industries of the people. The Filipinos realize the value of science. They have great faith in

it. But the great majority of them do not know or realize how difficult and how slow it is to gather scientific facts and to find their profitable applications. They can only see their practical results. This ignorant faith often hampers scientific and educational developments. Frequently a piece of scientific investigation would be prosecuted vigorously and financially supported generously at the beginning. When it does not produce immediately the practical results expected of it, the support is withdrawn or greatly reduced, sometimes enough to make it necessary to stop the work altogether. The people should be given a general scientific education so that whoever may happen to occupy positions of responsibility may have some fundamental understanding of science. This is a condition doubly to be hoped for in a country where financial support for scientific research and investigations come almost exclusively from government funds.

Education has a special duty to perform in the Philippines. It must give its people the education it needs with the least expense of time and money because it must catch up in civilization with other, more progressive countries on the comparatively meager financial resources at its command. Our educators should be able to do this for they could avoid errors and delays experienced by other countries in the latter's educational development.

In learning science as well as other subjects, we of the Philippines have acquired a very valuable tool. I refer to the fact that our official language of instruction is English. To appreciate this advantage it should be recalled that Filipinos in the different sections of the country speak different dialects in some of which it is rather difficult to carry on science instruction.

Formal instruction in science is given in the Philippines in schools, colleges and universities. These may be either governmental or private. The object of science instruction in the schools is to give students a broad elementary scientific background in general science, particularly in biology, physics and chemistry. In colleges and universities these and other branches of science are taught mainly to prepare the students

for the practice of some profession.

A few words should be said about the school curricula in which science subjects are taught. To save time I have omitted in this paper discussion of science teaching in private educational institutions. In the government schools, the curricula are grouped as Elementary, which covers seven years of schooling; Secondary, covering four years; and Junior College, covering two to three years of work after completion of a secondary curriculum. A student in the Elementary curricula receives formal instruction in elementary science. In the Secondary schools, he receives it again when he reaches the second year of the Secondary Academic curriculum and takes general science. In the third year, he is required to take biology, and in the fourth year, physics. In the other Secondary curricula, the Home Economics and Normal, physics is not required. In the Secondary Agriculture curricula, the student is required to take more applied science subjects. He takes horticulture in the first year, animal husbandry, general farm science and civic biology in the second year, plant pests and diseases and major Philippine crops in the fourth year.

Considering that only a very small percentage of the graduates of our secondary schools enter colleges and universities, and that there is practically no science instruction being given to those outside the schools, one can easily see that much work awaits science educators in the Philippines. There is a plan to revise the curricula in our schools and convert our purely academic secondary schools, which are the usual secondary schools in the Philippines, into vocational secondary institutions, mostly agricultural. Should this plan materialize the amount of instruction in the fundamental sciences might be affected.

There is only one government university in our country. This is the University of the Philippines and is composed of the following colleges and schools: Colleges of Agriculture, Business Administration, Engineering, Law, Liberal Arts, Medicine, Pharmacy and Veterinary Science, and Schools of Hygiene and Public Health, Public Health Nursing, Fine

Arts, Forestry, and Conservatory of Music. As one would expect, a student is made to carry a heavy science load in the Colleges of Medicine, Agriculture, Pharmacy, and Veterinary Science, and in the Schools of Forestry and Hygiene and Public Health. Whatever science instruction is given in the other Colleges and Schools, it is given in preparatory subjects to enable the student to take more advanced science subjects later or to give him a more liberal training. In the technical Colleges and Schools, the science subjects taught are those which are usually required by the profession for which the students are being trained.

It would be interesting to discuss the methods which we have used and the problems which we have met in science teaching in the Philippines and how we have tried to solve them. However, I believe there is no time now to do this. So I will only discuss some of the more important problems which we have faced in the College of Agriculture in the University of the Philippines. I am not, at any rate, quite competent to do this for the other Colleges. I may say, however, that while these other Colleges have had problems fundamentally similar to ours, these are more serious in the Colleges of Agriculture than in the other branches of the University.

In considering and evaluating the problems in the teaching of agricultural science in the Philippines, several points should be borne in mind. One of these is the fact that the College of Agriculture of the University of the Philippines is the only college of agriculture in our country. While we have different kinds of private colleges, we do not have a single private college of agriculture. Another point is the fact that the basic industry of the country is agriculture which represents about ninety-five per cent of its wealth. Therefore, while similar problems might not be as important in countries less dependent upon agriculture than the Philippines, in the latter country their importance assumes large proportions.

The ultimate object of agricultural science instruction

in the Philippines is the improvement of agriculture and the lot of the farmers. We are trying to gain this objective by teaching the science, as well as the arts, of the efficient use of the soil in the production of agricultural products, in the conservation and improvement of soil fertility, and in the most economical ways of producing and marketing these products to enable the farmers to obtain some profit from their work so they could live decently and comfortably and improve their social status.

As in the teaching of other sciences, the proper and successful teaching of agricultural sciences depends upon the existence of scientific knowledge in agriculture in general, and so far as the Philippines is concerned, in Philippine agriculture in particular. No matter how good an instructor may be and how good his methods of teaching are, in science teaching, if this scientific knowledge is lacking, his efficiency would be of no avail in producing positive results.

Immediately after our College of Agriculture was established in 1908 it had to face several serious problems. One of these is this lack of scientific information about tropical agriculture applicable to the Philippines and about Philippine agriculture itself. This is a very serious problem for any country that wants to improve its agriculture for this can only be done by the application in the art of agriculture of scientific knowledge about soil, plants, climate, and methods of plant culture. The Philippines can and does make use of fundamental scientific knowledge discovered and developed in other countries. In regard to applied agricultural science, however, it has to develop its own under its peculiar conditions of soil and climate and other factors affecting plant and animal growth. The information which is necessary in the building up of agricultural science of a country is usually obtained through research and investigation in the laboratories and fields of different agricultural and related institutions, agricultural colleges, experiment stations, institutes, and other organizations. When the Philippines was under Spanish rule, several agricultural experiment stations were established in different parts of the country for the purpose of securing

scientific data which could be used in the improvement and development of agriculture. However, these stations did not accomplish much. They were inadequately manned, had very poor facilities and were nothing like the modern agricultural experiment stations of a progressive country today. Soon after the United States of America assumed control of the Philippines a few agricultural stations were established under the direction and supervision of American technical agriculturists. While these stations did accomplish something, they were not able to produce enough scientific results to affect appreciably the agriculture of the country. In the early history of these research organizations, there was a lack of men who could properly run them. There were very few Americans trained in technical agriculture who had tropical experience, and as to Filipinos, there was nobody at all. Later, after our College of Agriculture had turned out graduates and many of them had taken post-graduate work in agriculture abroad, and as a result of the policy of the government to Filipinize government positions, these stations were, as they are now, manned by Filipino scientific agriculturists. It is probably due to lack of tropical experience also that America has not done as much in the Philippines as it has been doing for its other dependencies in agricultural philanthropy. While she supports financially agricultural experiment stations in her territories and colonies, in Alaska, in Porto Rico, Hawaii, Virgin Islands, and Guam, she never did this for the Philippines. Had she done this I am sure both America and the Philippines would have been benefited and science instruction about Philippine agriculture could have been carried on now on a higher level of efficiency. At present, research in the Philippines in agricultural and allied sciences is being done in the College of Agriculture and its Experiment Station, in the experiment stations of the Bureau of Plant Industry, in the Bureau of Science, College of Veterinary Science, Bureau of Animal Industry, in the School of Forestry and in the National Research Council. A little research work is also being done in some large private estates. All these institutions have contributed to the solu-

tion of our problem regarding lack of scientific data in agriculture for teaching purposes. However it is the College of Agriculture which contributed the lion's share. How it did this is quite interesting. One of the subjects required in its first and in all the succeeding curricula is the presentation of a thesis. This thesis is based upon original investigation by the student under the advisership of a high ranking faculty member and covers one or more years' time. As our College has graduated more than one thousand students, there have been completed more than one thousand separate pieces of investigation and research. Needless to say the results of these scientific studies form an invaluable source of information for agricultural science teaching and for the improvement and development of our agriculture and industries. Of course, as an undergraduate requirement for graduation it was criticized locally and abroad. Very few colleges require an undergraduate thesis for graduation. One of the criticisms against it was that it had a tendency to make a student more a scientist than a farmer. If there were any such tendency, however, it is counter-balanced by the requirements in actual farm work in all the crop courses and in applied subjects in animal husbandry. In these courses, students are required to perform actually all the necessary farm operations involved in the production of agricultural products. We grow on the College Farms all the major and minor crops of the Philippines at least in average farm scale. And the campus of the Institution is in the Economic Botanical Garden. Adjacent to the campus lies its Experiment Station Grounds. In this Garden and Experimental Fields students observe such cultural operations with other crops and plants as may not be covered by their courses. It would perhaps be very hard to find a college of agriculture which requires as much and gives as much opportunity for observation of actual farm work with diversified crops as the Philippine College of Agriculture. Time has proved the wisdom of our thesis requirement. It not only provides our professors and instructors intelligent assistants in research and allows them to accomplish more in a given length of

time than when this assistance is lacking, but it has also turned out to be a very good method of teaching science.

I have already mentioned the difficulty which our agricultural experiment stations had to face on account of lack of technical agriculturists suitable for tropical and Philippine research work. The same difficulty was faced by our College of Agriculture and by schools of agriculture in their formative days. To solve this difficulty, this College laid and carried out a policy of sending its most promising graduates to the best colleges of agriculture in America and in other countries to specialize in different branches of agricultural science. The instruction and training which they receive in these institutions of learning combined with their native experience with Philippine conditions and agriculture adapt them admirably to the task of instructing their countrymen in scientific agriculture. At present, with the exception of the Department of English, all members of our faculty are Filipinos. However, realizing the tremendous advantage to be secured in the contact of our men with foreign scientists, our College has welcomed the visit and sojourn on our Campus and in our Experiment Station of foreign specialists and has begun the exchange of professors with foreign universities. The lack of science teachers in Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges was automatically supplied after the College of Agriculture, and later the other Colleges of the government university had turned out sufficient graduates who could be employed as teachers in biology, chemistry, physics and the more applied subjects of agronomy, horticulture and animal husbandry.

We are also facing a problem regarding text and reference books, not only in the teaching of applied sciences but even of those generally considered fundamental in nature. While the method of teaching used in our colleges is generally the lecture method and therefore does not usually require textbooks, still even in this case the existence and use of suitable textbooks and certainly of reference books would add much to the efficiency of instruction. We lack suitable text and reference books adapted to Philippine conditions:

The writing of scientific books is quite new to the Filipinos. But they have begun this work and we now have several text and reference books in chemistry, botany, plant breeding and other subjects written by Filipino authors. Given some encouragement, our authors should be able to solve our local book problem in due time. Meanwhile, as a temporary solution to the problem, foreign textbooks have been revised to contain Philippine and tropical data, and are used in our schools.

Science Teaching and the Language Problem as a Medium for Teaching Science in Siam

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When elementary science (Physics and Chemistry) was first introduced into the Secondary School curriculum in Siam some forty years ago, it was taught entirely in English. This was only possible if English was begun early, and science taught after the pupils had a good working knowledge of that language. In those early days of secondary school education, there were few schools and a large number of European teachers (English), who in fact taught in all the higher classes in all subjects except the Siamese Language. There were then very few trained Siamese teachers and there were no Siamese textbooks on mathematics and science except Arithmetic of the simplest kind.

As the number of secondary schools increased, such staffing became more and more difficult to carry out. With the rapid increase in the number of pupils, it was found impos-

sible, for financial reasons, to keep up the same proportion of European or Europe-trained Siamese teachers, so that the average standard of knowledge of English became lower, while the standard for science and mathematics as demanded by revised curriculum became higher.

Apart from this, it is questionable whether the teaching of mathematics and science through the medium of a foreign language is desirable. A boy in his home land always thinks in his mother tongue, however much he may study a foreign language. When a statement is made to him in a foreign language, his reception of it is not instantaneous and automatic. He must first mentally translate it into his own language. The message reaches him after being first reflected from an artificial receiving surface, so to speak. I have had personal experience of this in teaching Physics to the 1st and 2nd-year classes at one of the universities. At first I followed the method of my predecessor, one of the American Visiting Professors, who was re-organizing the Pre-medical course, under a scheme of co-operation between the Siamese Government and the Rockefeller Foundation, a co-operation which has since born such fruitful results and has been of infinite value to medical education in Siam. All the lectures, tuition and laboratory work was then given in English. For laboratory work, such a method was fairly satisfactory because the students needed only to read or write mostly, and had comparatively a lot of time to deliberate. But for the lectures, I found the students labouring under a heavy burden and were incapable of taking down lecture notes properly, or to understand the finer shades of meaning and to digest even the least involved process of reasoning. The lecturer was compelled either to dictate his lecture or to write it out on the blackboard; and as he could not do so in detail without becoming badly behind his schedule of the ground to be covered, the students came to rely upon and exaggerate the value of textbooks to an undesirable extent. If this were so in a University class, whose members have had five or six hours a week of English for at least four years previously, how much more undesirable is the method when

applied to Secondary School classes? Apart from sentiment or nationalism, sheer practicality made it necessary to teach mathematics and science in Siamese there. In some of the final years of the University classes English is still being used as the medium, partly because there are at present not enough Siamese textbooks on advanced science, and partly because the students are supposed to know enough English.

During the last few years, a large number of textbooks on science, mathematics and other technical subjects of the more elementary kind in Siamese have been published, but both in quantity and quality the supply still falls short of the demand. The greatest obstacle to the compilation of textbooks of this nature is the question of the technical terms to be used.

A technical term, for which there was no Siamese equivalent, may be treated in any one of these three alternative ways:—

- (1) To use the European word entirely, i. e., to write it in Roman characters.
- (2) To adopt the European word, i. e., to write the word in Siamese characters with its original pronunciation, or as near it as possible.
- (3) To coin a new word in Siamese, or to define or allot a definite meaning to an already existing Siamese word.

A few years ago, different compilers of textbooks adopted any or all of these methods as they liked, and the state of affairs was chaotic. In adopting foreign words, some would use, say, the English pronunciation, another German and another French. Each author would contend that his own translation of a certain word was the right one. Thus, if you picked up three books on Chemistry you might find 'iodine' written in three different ways. The Ministry of Public Instruction at length took up the matter and appointed a Committee, consisting of representatives from some Government Departments and learned institutions, to inquire into and report upon the question of a uniform system of technical terms in elementary science. The Committee made the

following recommendations :

- (1) All terms in general use should be translated into their Siamese equivalents.
- (2) If there are no existing Siamese equivalents, new words should be constructed in Siamese, with the help of Pali and Sanskrit words if necessary.
- (3) Special technical terms, not in general use, are to be adopted, with English pronunciation and written in Siamese characters.

A few words in explanation of the Siamese language are here necessary. The Siamese people belong to a stock of the Mongolian Race, called the Thai, who migrated from the valley of the Yangtsekiang southward. The Siamese still call themselves the Thai today. The Thai language is therefore similar to Chinese, as far as the spoken language is concerned. It is mainly monosyllabic and there are words of the same sound, distinguishable by tones. But the written language is totally different from Chinese. After their settlement in the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, the Thai came under the influence of Indian culture, which penetrated into the country by way of Java, Sumatra and Cambodia. The Siamese writing is a modification of the Cambodian. In character it is phonetic and alphabetical, not pictorial, and tones are distinguished by means of diacritical marks. It may be used to represent Western pronunciation with fair approximation; there is a large choice of vowels and consonants, many of which are, however, redundant. Some sounds in English, e.g., th, v, z, cannot be accurately represented, but on the whole there is no insurmountable difficulty in writing a European word so that a person without previous knowledge can at sight pronounce it with more or less the correct sound. Accents must, however, be learnt, because words in Siamese are not accentuated. With the introduction of Indian culture and the spread of Buddhism, the language was enriched by a large number of Pali and Sanskrit words. These polysyllabic words, whose pronunciations became gradually modified to suit the Siamese tongue, have the great advantage of being capable of inflexion, which was not the case with the pure

monosyllabic Siamese words, and are therefore much more convenient for word building.

The report of the Committee referred to above was approved by the Ministry of Public Instruction, and issued to the public as a tentative recommendation, together with a list of some 300 technical terms in elementary science which the Committee had worked on the principles referred to above. Since then it is satisfactory to note that as far as subjects covered by those words are concerned order has been restored. But much more remains to be done. In art, in technology, in the higher sciences and mathematics, the need for a uniform system of technical terms is badly felt. But the work of word-building must necessarily be slow. The opinion has been put forward that any word will do, so long as everybody uses it. But the trouble is how to make everyone use it. This is not the sort of thing that can be legislated upon. The Government could hardly imprison or impose a fine on a man who uses the wrong word, for, say, temperature. It is necessary to build words which will meet with popular approval. There are always cranks or perverse persons who will always object to everything introduced by other people, of course, but provided the majority of people approve, permanency of the new introduction is secured. The influence of the press in this direction is very great. Recently there have been a large number of new words or phrases not within the sphere of the exact sciences coined by private individuals or public personages, and so many of the words have met with the public approval and are so generally used, that if our grandfathers were to read the Siamese newspapers of today, they would have much difficulty in understanding the whole of it. The Siamese language is in the process of rapid change or evolution; with the introduction of these new words, it is becoming not only more embracing but also more exact.

The following examples are given to illustrate how different types of technical terms have been treated, according to the principles laid down above.

- (1) a. Word in general use translated into pure Siamese.

- Conductor (of heat or electricity): tua nam
tua (pure Siamese; that which.)
nam (pure Siamese; leads.)
- b. Word in general use given a definite meaning.
Accelerate: reng (literally in pure Siamese: to hurry up)
- (2) Word in general use coined with help of Pali and Sanskrit.
Temperature: Unhabhum (Pronounce: Un-ha-pum in Siamese.)
- (3) a. Special word not translated:
Focus
Moment (of a force)
- b. Special word translated into Siamese because the pronunciation is too difficult.
Parallelogram: Si liam dan khanan; four angles sides parallel (in pure Siamese, therefore cumbersome and in fact a whole phrase for a word.)

The question of technical symbols can hardly be included in the question of language, but I would like to make a brief reference to it. Attempts have before been made to use entirely Siamese letters and Siamese letters and Siamese numerals in books on such subjects as Algebra, Geometry and Trigonometry. This is not practicable. The Siamese numerals are more complicated, occupying more lateral space for the same height and tire the eyes more than Arabic numerals.

When used for writing, for instance, an algebraic expression involving a large number of figures, with power indices, the confusion is very great. In all the recent textbooks, published or approved by the Ministry of Public Instruction, Arabic numerals have been insisted upon. Arabic numerals, as well as the Siamese, are being taught in the lowest primary classes.

For symbols, the use of the Roman and Greek alphabets,

such as x, y, z, π, e , etc., as well as the symbols representing the chemical elements, is so universal that it need hardly be mentioned that any attempt to invent new ones in Siamese cannot be taken seriously.

Types of Educational Research in Science Teaching in the United States

Mr. Harry A. Carpenter

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In making out a programme for the Science Meeting we were, of course, at a great disadvantage trying to write letters to people in London, Japan, and various other countries of the world, and therefore those of us who were concerned put down certain subjects that we could speak on as fillers, and so in a sense this discussion of research in science teaching is short and I'll not worry you very much.

First let me say that in the United States there is a vast amount of so-called educational research being carried on. We all recognize the fact that when we attempt to do scientific research with human beings we are at a very great disadvantage over the pure science researches. The man who does research in chemistry or physics, biology, though not quite so much in biology, is able to control as many of the factors, as many of the variables as he wishes. But in educational research it's almost impossible to foresee all of those variables and therefore all conclusions or tentative conclusions arrived at as results of educational research are considered very tentative.

I should attempt to mention just a few of the lines in which we are endeavouring to find answers. I might say, for example, that there is a good deal of research being done

on the size of classrooms, attempting to determine what size of class a teacher can adequately handle. We have no answer to that question for the simple reason that the dollar determines it. If money is scarce for school expenses then a given teacher is given more pupils, and if there is more money then the classes are made smaller. In other words, it doesn't seem to matter whether a teacher can efficiently teach twenty-five or fifty students. It's a matter of dollars and cents. Therefore, we haven't gone very far in that direction. We have, of course, in the United States a great many superstitions and misbeliefs. All over the country researches and studies are being carried on attempting to find out the most common misbeliefs and teach accordingly. That is to say, researches and studies have indicated that where a teacher deliberately points out the fallacy of a superstition or a misbelief the children very quickly give up that idea. On the other hand, in those classes where teachers do not consciously devote time to that particular objective the children retain their ordinary misbeliefs and superstitions. One, for example, is that a high forehead indicates great intelligence. I believe our psychologists tell us that there is no relationship between a high forehead and intelligence, and I might cite many other examples. In the United States we think of Friday the thirteenth as being unlucky, an unlucky day, and so recently on Friday the thirteenth of a particular month the broadcasting stations all over the country carried on experiments of various kinds to find out for the satisfaction of the listeners who were confused about the idea of Friday the thirteenth. For example, on this particular day they had people break mirrors and they had them walk under a ladder and they had them do all sorts of funny things which those of us who are scientists of course merely smile at, but there are a tremendous number of people in the States who still want to do something and knock on wood to protect themselves, and so an enormous amount of study is being done. Dr. Otis W. Caldwell who is General Secretary of the American Chemical Society, and who was to have been here as your secretary,

has done perhaps more than anyone else in this particular line of investigation. I'm sorry that Dr. Caldwell couldn't be here. He is an admirable speaker and a very delightful gentleman and knows perhaps more about the science work in the United States than almost any other single individual.

Of course, we are all interested in the place science occupies in the schools, that is to say, how low down in the school grade is it possible for a child to understand the principles of science. We're trying through systematic study to find out how far down in the grades students may understand these things. For example, I believe it has been found that children in the fifth grade can understand the principle of evaporation and condensation. Therefore, we can talk, using those words, and they will understand, assuming that they've had the suitable laboratory approach. Another important thing that we've done in the United States and are still doing are attempts to determine more definitely what our objectives are. For a great many years, for two or three generations, we've been teaching science in schools in the United States without any real adequate notion so far as the classroom teacher's line is concerned with respect to the real reason for teaching science. Of course at the University of Wisconsin and many other universities where we have educational research departments and in many other larger cities, school system research is being carried to determine the real or practical objective to science teaching and in that connection, of course, we are all coming to believe that after all information about science is not the important thing but rather the attitudes that are developed as the result of the study of science. They are the important thing and it is interesting to note that those were mentioned or intimated in all of the talks delivered here this morning. So we are trying to measure scientific attitude, a very difficult problem. In the first place we don't know whether the word, scientific attitude, is a singular word, whether there is a scientific attitude or whether there are a variety of scientific attitudes. One individual, Dr. Downing of the University of Chicago, thinks that a scientific

attitude is an urge and he puts it in the singular—an urge to do something in a particular way. Then we're trying to measure the ability which pupils have or may develop in the use of the method of science. There was a time when teachers generally didn't give very much attention to the methods involved in the pupil activity but they are now trying to establish firmly real principles of the scientific attitude. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, President of Columbia University, for a number of years made this statement, or rather question, to his faculty. "Can science be going the way of the past? In the United States the study of Greek very rapidly, almost entirely disappeared. The study of Latin is very much restricted and science has been free." Now Dr. Butler would like to know if there is something about science or some lack in science which indicates that it is to go the way of the facts. His belief is that unless we train these boys and girls in the methods of science and in scientific thinking then science will not hold its own.

I might mention two or three additional items that are receiving a good deal of attention right now. One, for example, is the study of scientific vocabulary. We heard what our friend from Siam has said about the difficulty that they have with vocabulary there. Well, I think that our problem should be simple compared with theirs. Whatever it is, it is a real problem to know what word, what technical words, may or may not be used efficiently at a particular grade lesson. For example, we found by an investigation year that an ordinary elementary textbook in biology, such as is used in our first high school, contained about two thousand technical word, more or less, technical words that were uncommon, words that were beyond a vocabulary of ten thousand. That is to say, Professor Thorndyke investigated the use of words and so he developed first a list of words called "The Ten Thousand Word List", being the ten thousand words in most common use. And here is an elementary book of science containing two thousand words not found in that list of ten thousand common words. Well, what does this mean? Either the ten thousand word list is

wrong or else our biology consists only of teaching words about two thousand new words. We have about two hundred school days, and about all we really do is teach ten new words a day. Now we have eliminated a great many of those uncommon technical words.

Next I would like to refer to the fact that we are doing considerable amount of systematic investigation into the methods of teaching. For example, shall we have every child write a full laboratory report of his experiment and shall the teacher read that in detail or shall we have the pupil write an abbreviatory laboratory report? Shall we have pupils make drawings and diagrams in their notebooks? Just what is the value of a drawing in a notebook or what kind of a drawing is desirable? Shall it be a line, a simple line drawing or a picture drawing, or what? I mentioned this just to show the trend towards which we are going in some of these researches.

And finally, we're doing a good deal of work in the United States in different sections in respect to the use of radio, making systematic investigations as to how radio can be used in the classrooms. What shall be the technique of broadcasting? What shall be the technique of the teacher's activities in the classroom itself? Shall the teacher discuss the lesson ahead of the broadcast or after the broadcast, or both?

Now I have taken about ten minutes. There are many other types of research. I personally think there are two important things we are doing. One is the termination of our objectives, attempting to base our objectives in such a way that the teacher and the administrators shall understand them as things to be practicable and workable. And the second important thing, I believe, is this attempt to measure the scientific attitude and the ability of the pupils to make use of the methods of science.

If you have any questions that I can answer regarding this research in education, I'd be glad to hear them. I have referred to science teaching. Of course we're doing an enormous amount of research in all fields of education, but

that is not my problem this morning.

Experiments and Observations in Natural Science in Japanese Middle Schools

Mr. Gengo Fujiki

Professor, Tokyo Higher Normal School, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 428)

Third Session

Japanese Morning Glory and Its Importance in General Science

Dr. Kiichi Miyake

Professor, Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 443)

Earthquakes and Mitigation of Earthquake Disasters

Dr. Akitsune Imamura

Member of the Imperial Academy, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 447)

Election of Officers

The Section elected as **Chairman**

Dr. Otis Caldwell

and as **Secretary**

Mr. H. A. Carpenter

Resolutions

Resolved on the motion of Mr. Carpenter, seconded by one of the foreign delegates present:

That the Science and Science Teaching Section become, at least tentatively, an international science teachers' association.

That the Section desires to express to the Japanese members of the Conference its hearty appreciation of their efficient labours in arranging for and conducting the Science and Science Teaching Section sessions in Tokyo.

Contributed Papers

Education for Family Living

Dr. Ava B. Milam

*Dean and Director of Home Economics,
Oregon State College, Oregon, U.S.A.*

An analysis of society's basic institutions places the home and the school among the most important with respect to the service rendered humanity.

Home economics is a field of education that has developed largely in response to a need for the betterment of one of these basic institutions—the home. Its subject matter deals primarily with the principles of physical and social sciences in their application to family living.

For most persons, family living is a continuous experience, and the results of that experience are largely carried over into society. Therefore, improvement of the quality of family living is basic to the betterment of society.

Although the family quite generally is unaware of its full significance as an educational institution, the home has greater possibilities than any other institution for becoming an efficient agency in educating people for family living. Too often the family fails to see its influence, not only upon its own members, but also upon society as it develops a pattern for success or failure. Too frequently parents over-estimate the contribution in educating for family living that can and should be expected from schools. Until parents become aware of their own opportunities and responsibilities as educators and give an important place to education for parenthood and to putting into practice those principles that apply to family living, society's welfare cannot be assured.

The home as an educational agency cannot be supplanted. The school cannot fully assume the educational function of the home in preparing youth for family life. The home and

the school can and should work together in developing a consistent and progressive programme of education for family living that starts with the new-born infant and continues throughout life. The educational institutions, starting first with prenatal clinics and continuing with the nursery school and on through to the adult education programme, can do much to reinforce and integrate the educational programme carried out in the home.

We are living in a world of change, and each change that develops in our social or economic structure brings with it the need for adjustments within the family. The type and quality of these adjustments, which must be made, depend largely upon the knowledge, attitudes, skills, and emotional patterns of the individuals called upon to make the adjustments.

Although the responsibilities that fall upon leaders for making adjustments and for outlining creative programmes are far-reaching in producing the general tone of nations, we cannot discount the influence of the large masses of individuals who are found in our organizations of society. We are nations made up of individuals, and if we are to give and receive the most that life has to offer, we, as individuals, must learn *how to live*.

Of the adult population in the United States of America, five-sixths are without high school education. Almost one-half have less than an elementary education. It is apparent that if our masses are to be reached, our pre-school, elementary, and adult education programmes must supplement our secondary schools and colleges. As it is the quality of family life within our masses that determines the quality of our world citizenry, every effort must be made throughout all age levels to make fundamental principles available to all people, and the earlier in our educational programmes these beginnings are made, the greater will be their value. Though my illustrations of what is now being done in this field through schools and communities will be drawn entirely from the United States, we know that education for family living is attracting the attention of educators throughout the world.

The responsibility of education for family living does not

belong to one field. All educational resources available should be used to insure a comprehensive programme. How economics, however, has pioneered in family education at the pre-school, the elementary, secondary, college, and adult education levels.

One of the newest and most important instruments in education for family living is the nursery school. Although these schools for children between the ages of eighteen months and five years have been in operation for less than a quarter of a century, they have developed beyond the experimental stage, and their contributions have exceeded our expectations. From a very small beginning nursery schools have shown slow but continued growth. In the progress of their development they have been established in colleges and universities as observational laboratories for students in home economics and applied psychology classes. They have also been used in research centres, thus making it possible for investigators to gather data that have contributed to a better and more complete understanding of the principles of child development, care, and training. Orphanages, high schools, individuals, and groups of various kinds have also established nursery schools. After these nursery schools had demonstrated their value as educational institutions that promote better family living, the United States government during the recent financial depression became interested in expanding the programme. The nursery schools up until that period were open only to children whose parents were financially able to pay at least a small sum for tuition. Our government officials felt that it was highly desirable to make free nursery schools available to children of parents who are either unemployed or are on low incomes. Through programmes of this type it has been possible not only to give adequate food, care, and training to these children, but also to improve the home environment. Although nursery schools are not yet available to all children, it seems highly probable that the time will come when these schools are recognized as an important part of each child's education.

The specific educational programme undertaken by nursery schools is at least two-fold—first, education of the child, and second, education of the parent. In nursery schools connected

with educational institutions, a third purpose should be included; namely, that of educating students for future parenthood or for occupation fields such as teaching or work in children's hospitals and orphanages.

Let me consider first the nursery school's educational programme for the pre-school child. The physical, mental, social, and emotional needs of the child are given careful consideration. To facilitate the child's learning in self-reliance, the equipment of the nursery school is especially designed to conform to the child's physical status. Low tables, chairs, cupboards, washbowls, books, lockers, as well as carefully selected toys and play materials are in evidence. Each child is encouraged to do things for himself, for example, to put on and remove wraps, to wash his hands and face, to comb his hair, to find his play equipment, to put it away when he has finished using it, and, in general, to form desirable habits and attitudes in assuming responsibility for himself and in helping others. Through contacts with associates of his own age, the child learns to make friends and to hold friends; he learns to control his emotional responses; he learns to give and take; to lead and to follow if necessary; he learns to evaluate facts and to make decisions. Desirable eating and sleeping habits are established. In fact, the child learns at an early age to fit himself into the general plan of living.

The nursery school programme also facilitates language development. This in itself is important, as the child's mental, social, and emotional growth are dependent largely on his ability to understand what he hears and sees in his environment. Although the child spends from three to six hours daily in the nursery school, this training is not sufficient to insure an adequate programme for the child. It is necessary, therefore, that the home and school shall work together in planning an integrated programme. This is accomplished either through parent education classes or through parent conferences. In all nursery schools, parents are expected to visit from time to time and to observe their children as they react in a group. Through these visits parents also have an opportunity to see trained workers deal with problems of child

guidance. In many nursery schools parents are given an opportunity actually to work with the children. Through these contacts parents become aware of a need for information concerning child development, care, and training. After this interest is aroused, requests come for bibliographies, and not infrequently a parent asks for information relating to specific problems he needs to solve.

The appreciation expressed by numerous parents of nursery school children can best be conveyed to you by quoting from a letter I received from the father of one of our nursery school children at the close of this present school year. An excerpt of his statement reads as follows:

"This note is a rather belated expression of the sincere appreciation my wife and I feel for the benefits our son has enjoyed during his time in nursery school.

"The nursery school helps both the child and his parents. Our little boy's experience has been in every way excellent. Under skilled guidance, he has faced with his young contemporaries many practical problems and has learned to make adjustments that I am sure will help him to build for himself a harmonious individual and social life.

"Later on in high school, when he is facing manhood, perhaps he may similarly learn with his contemporaries the principles that make for successful home and family life. I am interested in these new high-school and junior-college courses for boys and girls in family relationships and eugenics in general. A man's chief source of real happiness is through his family relationships. I greatly desire that my son may have as one of his primary goals in life the establishment of a home of his own, in which his responsibility includes, not only the provision of economic support, but a full share in the development of the social and spiritual values of family life.

"As a husband and father, I wish to add one other thing: Much more important than either the nursery school or a future course in eugenics, in the develop-

ment of our little boy, is the fact that he has the wise and skilled guidance of a mother who is herself a graduate in home economics."

In home economics centres, students registered in child development, clothing, family relationships, and related classes have an opportunity not only to read about facts relating to the young child, but also to observe the application of these principles as they are put into practice. It is gratifying to find that college men are as keenly interested in learning sound principles relating to child guidance as are the college women. Our course in family relationships enrolls men as well as women students, and it involves observation periods in the nursery school. From some of our student papers, I found the following, the first of which was written by a young woman:

"I certainly hope that a nursery school will be available for my children because I believe it helps a great deal in making children self-reliant, and it also helps to mold their personalities."

A young man who had just returned from his first visit to the nursery school wrote the following:

"I hadn't realized until I visited the nursery school that the child's training before he goes to elementary schools is so important."

Although the home and the nursery school differ in many respects, the fundamental principles that operate in the nursery school can be carried into the home. The nursery school and the home are both important education centres for the young child, and one cannot serve as a substitute for the other.

Prior to 1900, home economics in elementary and secondary schools concerned itself mainly with skills in cookery and sewing. From 1900, to 1920 excellent foundations were laid for our present programme, which is now directed toward education for family living rather than toward education for skills alone. The Smith-Hughes Act—a Federal Act passed in 1917 which provides annual funds for the development of home economics in secondary schools—has had a

great influence in the expansion and development of home economics education in the United States. Most high school home economics courses no longer offer merely clothing and foods. The programme has been broadened to include homemaking. The equipment, too, has grown in the past two decades from foods and clothing laboratories to the provision of houses or homemaking apartments with facilities for teaching many phases of homemaking.

The personnel of the group in secondary schools studying home economics has also changed from a small group of girls with vocational interest to a large group of boys and girls interested in family education. As family members, men and boys have a decided influence on the ideals and attitudes developed within the home, as well as on the more tangible phases of home living. Home economics educators have come to realize that we may be making for conflict rather than for harmony in the home when we educate a girl to certain ideals and standards in home life and fail to educate her partner in the enterprise. A few of our schools have recognized a need for this type of education for boys, and their efforts to meet this need have shown gratifying results. In Corvallis, Oregon, a course in home economics for senior high schools boys was started six years ago. It has tripled its enrolment since that time. The objectives are to aid boys in developing into appreciative and co-operative home members through the acquiring of helpful attitudes and information, much of which can be put into immediate practice. The Corvallis Superintendent of Schools has this to say concerning the course for high school boys that has been developed under his direction:

"I think that the boys' home economics course in the Corvallis high school is one of the most valuable courses taught and is, without a doubt, the most popular course with boys in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Each year we find it necessary to limit the enrolment.

"This course is helpful to a boy in answering what to him are serious questions with regard to etiquette, health, management of finances, clothing, personal groom-

ing, sex, eugenics, and the boy and girl relationships. The study comes at a time when the boy feels the need for information on these topics.

"There is no doubt in my mind that the attitudes and information acquired in this course have improved the behaviour and habits of the boys enrolled and that these changes will carry over into their lives when they establish homes. There would be much opposition in the community if we should drop this course from the curriculum."

Home economics at a college level may be fairly well represented as it exists in the United States through a description of the courses offered by the School of Home Economics at Oregon State College. This school, with which I have been connected for twenty-five years, seeks to serve directly or indirectly every Oregon home. Students are trained for the responsibilities of homemaking and parenthood and the various earning fields open to home economists. Through research on these problems and extension closely co-ordinated with the resident teaching, effort is constantly directed toward the solution of home problems. The courses in home economics are designed to meet the needs of students majoring in other fields as well as in home economics. The main aim throughout is family education. Education for the earning fields is not neglected but is recognized as of secondary importance. The curricula set up by the school for major students require a broad basic education consisting of one year each of English composition, art, history, and literature; introductory courses in social sciences, psychology, and music appreciation; and two years of physical education. The science required ranges from one year up, depending on the professional field the student may choose. The hospital dietitian must have much chemistry and physiology, whereas the student who is especially interested in the nursery school field gives time to psychology, and the student who desires to teach must include education courses in her programme. To this broad, basic programme may be added the special training for earning fields.

This curriculum, including work in child development, household management, foods, clothing, and housing culminates in a six weeks' residence in the home management house. The home management houses are adequately equipped residences in which groups of six women live for a period of six weeks at a time and put into practice the homemaking principles learned through class work. To approach more nearly the actual conditions found in a normal home, the School of Home Economics arranges each year, usually through a contract with orphanages, to assume the responsibility for the care and training of an infant for each of its houses. After leaving the home management houses, these infants, if for adoption, are eagerly sought by families.

One of our foremost medical doctors, who for fifteen years has made monthly examinations of our home management house babies and who has also given pre-natal and post-natal guidance throughout our community, says the following:

"I have noted with great interest the consistent improvement of the physical condition of the babies during their stay in the home management houses during which time they are cared for by home economic seniors."

"I find no comparison between the college and high school women who have had home economics training and those women who have had no special training for homemaking. The home economics women I find more intelligent in their pre-natal care and in the care of their children. They are more interested in their diet and that of their children, and are more careful in laying foundations for health."

This homemaking experience in the home management house is carried out under the direction of a resident instructor. The student duties are rotated each week, and by the end of the six weeks each girl in turn has had the responsibility of planning the meals, purchasing the food, preparing the meals, caring for the baby, etc. It resembles the internship plan in training physicians. This course is generally considered by seniors and alumnae to be one of

the most valuable and enjoyable college courses. Through this experience students develop a "feeling" of increased respect and appreciation for homemaking. The learning that takes place involves not only the application of knowledge and the acquiring of skills, but also the more subtle factors that serve to motivate the individual throughout life. In other words, attitudes and emotional patterns are modified.

In recent years we have discovered through research that the learning of knowledge and the learning of desired attitudes do not always progress simultaneously. We also know that if there is conflict between our attitudes and the knowledge we have learned, we make little use of that knowledge. We are told by psychologists that it is possible for our emotional patterns and our knowledge to be either in accord or in conflict with each other. When this latter condition prevails, these two powerful forces may cause the attitude to fluctuate or to become unstable. In our educational programmes we cannot overlook these intangible forces that operate in the lives of all individuals and play a large part in the success of family living. Throughout our programme of training, we attempt to promote growth toward emotional maturity. We also attempt to provide learning experiences that will enable the student to become master of his attitudes.

Provision is made for foreign women, who are graduate students in home economics, to reside in the home management house usually for one quarter or more. These foreign students and the American students gain much more living and working together in small family units. In such a setting prejudices vanish, and mutual appreciation of different cultures develops. This may be shown by the following statement made by one of our American girls:

"I would not take anything for my experience of living in the home management house with Chen I. She has changed my whole attitude toward foreign people."

Our home management houses serve as a laboratory for men as well as women students. One of their assignments for men registered in our family relationship classes is to participate in home situations such as entertaining guests

and the planning, preparing, and serving of an evening meal. This places men and women together in work and recreational activities of the home, thus giving them an opportunity to gain security in social poise as well as a greater understanding and respect for family living activities. In these contacts many questions are asked, such as, How much does it cost to operate a home? How much time does it take to care for a baby? May I have an opportunity to learn the duties of a host?

During the forty-eight years Oregon State College's School of Home Economics has been in existence, it has graduated 2,050 women. They and their homes bear testimony to the value of home economics education for family living. The department of sociology and other divisions of the college are also making contributions to family education through their courses.

An expanding research programme in home economics is gradually being developed in the United States of America. This programme thus far has been largely financed by Federal funds coming from Purnell and Bankhead Jones grants for agriculture and home economics research. The development of a strong comprehensive research programme is fundamental to the development of a sound educational programme for family living.

The research programme in home economics at Oregon State College is fairly representative of the research being undertaken in the larger state-supported institutions of the United States. In 1925 we were granted Federal funds for one full-time research worker, and we set up a research project in the field of household administration. The first work to be done was a study of the use of time by Oregon farm homemakers, which was undertaken for the purpose of enabling us to aid farm homemakers more effectively.

It was apparent from the results of this investigation that there was needed a study of housing arrangements from the standpoint of family needs. This study was started in 1931, and we expect to continue it for some years. The objective in this investigation is to develop specifications for

parts of houses and for their equipment, which will aid architects and builders in planning dwellings that will supply maximum utility at a given cost. This project is of general interest in the United States because of the lack of servants, and because houses are too often planned by persons who do not know much about the demands of family life in a dwelling.

Recently an additional Federal grant enabled us to undertake a project in the field of human nutrition. We are working on the vitamin content of frozen foods. The preservation of fruits and vegetables by freezing is an industry of increasing importance in the Pacific Northwest.

In 1914 the Federal Smith-Lever Act made available Federal funds for agriculture and home economics extension. Agricultural education up to that time had aimed largely to increase the farm income. The leaders who framed the 1914 Federal bill were apparently aware of the fact that the income of the family may be increased without the quality of family life being improved. They therefore made provision for family education along with agricultural education. The home economics extension has been developed through projects in nutrition, clothing, house furnishing, child development, family life, and recreation.

Homemakers, living either on farms or in small towns, are organized into extension units and receive training in all phases of home economics. Four-H clubs and rural youth generally receive help from the home economics extension specialist in planning programmes, training leaders, and conducting demonstrations. As recreation in home and community life is basic for happy family living, an important phase of the work is the recreation programme.

One of the important parts of the recreation programme in Oregon is the summer camps for homemakers. The first camp was held six years ago on a lake in Western Oregon. During the summer of 1937, thirteen such camps will be held over the state. The camps are planned primarily for relaxation, inspiration, and recreation for the busy homemaker. The camps are from four to six days in duration and are

located in magnificent scenic spots with which Oregon abounds. The camper has no home duties while at camp except to make her bed. The staff of each camp consists of a director, either a home economics extension specialist or a recreational specialist, together with a registered nurse, a certified life-guard, a cook, assistants, and dishwashers. The camp is operated at a minimum cost, which varies from \$3 to \$5 for the four to six-day camp. The women may bring produce from the farm to cover some of the cost.

Many delightful things are in the day's programme such as swimming, boating, nature walks, sketching, reading, craft work, with the opportunity of attending occasionally a more serious discussion on family relationships or some other subject.

At one of the camps, one of the campers on leaving said to the camp director:

"You will never know what this camp has meant to me. A few years ago I lost my child and I didn't want to be with people or even see people. I've stayed more and more at home until I really became afraid of people. My husband heard of this camp and insisted upon my coming." And then her face lighted up as she continued, "Why do you know, one night around the camp fire when I took part in the little play, that was the first time I'd ever done a thing like that in my life! This camp has opened up a new life to me."

An outstanding feature of the home economic extension work is the Home Interest Conference. This five-day conference, conducted in co-operation with the home economics resident staff, is held at Oregon State College each February. The eighth conference will be held in 1938. Approximately six hundred persons attended last year. Interest group sessions are held in all phases of homemaking so that those attending may find help in their particular interest or problem. The conference is educational, recreational, and inspirational. One of the women from the southern part of the state, who each year in order to come to the conference must come on snow shoes ten or eleven miles and then ride horseback

another ten miles before she can reach a car, said :

"The Home Interest Conference is one of the most valuable contributions of the college to the women of Oregon. Besides the things I learn and the things I hear and do, one of the things I value most is the friendships I make. Now I know women from all over the state. They are my friends. They have the same problems I do, so it makes mine seem not so difficult. At the close of each conference I look forward to the one next year."

In any general programme of education for family living, adult education naturally has an important function. It must try to make up for what other phases of education fail to achieve. Some aspects of education for family living, moreover, can be taught most effectively at the adult level. Young married couples establishing homes, prospective parents, and young parents facing actual problems of child rearing, are conscious of their needs and can be effectively reached through an educational programme. Some of the most significant developments in education for family living are taking place in the realm of adult education.

As already stated, this description of the home economics resident, research, and extension work at Oregon State College is offered as merely typical of the work in other colleges and universities in the United States.

In conclusion, I suggest the following three points of emphasis which it seems to me should be given consideration in the development of adequate programmes of education for family living :

1. The home should be recognized as an educational agency.

This involves the development, by all feasible methods, of an awareness within parents of their responsibility as educators, not only in teaching knowledge and skills, but also in providing motivating forces such as attitudes and ideals. It involves increased recognition by parents of their responsibility in safeguarding and upbuilding home and family life.

2. An adequate programme of education for family living

should be developed.

Educational institutions and agencies should be further co-ordinated and their work expanded and strengthened so as to provide for both sexes education for family living adapted to all ages from infancy through adult life. This involves increased development of such agencies as nursery schools, courses in home economics, and adult education programmes. It involves the recognition of education for family living as one of the primary aims in the education of the individual.

3. An adequate research programme should be developed. Centralized agencies with generous financial support and competently staffed should be developed for co-ordinated programmes of research in the problems of home and family life. Because of the basic social importance of home and family life adequate State and Federal support for such research work is not only justified but necessitated.

Home Economics is education in the art of living, and like life, its content comes from all the social and physical sciences. This fact has significance in this presentation before the Science Association

Contributions to Home Economics subject matter come from Physics, Chemistry, Bacteriology, Entomology, from Psychology, Social Ethics, Economics, Anthropology. Workers in the special sciences can make contributions to the formation of Home Economics Courses; their research problems may be occasionally found in the field of housekeeping and of home and family life. Thus, as a first stage in courses in Home Economics Education, food chemistry, household bacteriology, economics of consumption, and child psychology have sometimes been given in academic college departments to meet the special vocational interest of women students. This is well as far as it goes. But Home Economics is something more than the summation of such applied science courses. It is an administrative of Food Management, of Clothing Economics, of Home Care and Management, of Child

Care and Development, of Family Life and Relationships. These administrative divisions of the total area of Home Economics are the natural divisions of its subject matter, and to these administrative divisions, e.g., Food Management, all the related sciences and arts must contribute their quota of facts, Chemistry, Bacteriology, Physics, Hygiene, Fine Art and Design, Sociology and Psychology, and doubtless others—and this totality of subject matter related to food management in the family, garnered from the different sciences, will then find in time its own appropriate organization according to its own character and the practical functions which it serves. So too clothing and the house, the child, the family group, are other natural divisions of the total home management field.

We in Home Economics ask from you workers in the special sciences a sympathetic understanding of our field. You can aid us in your research and you can train advanced teachers for us, encouraging for this purpose those who have an interest in applied science, rather than pure science. You can aid in setting up courses with a professional or vocational purpose wherever it is appropriate to do that. Like medicine, or agriculture, Home Economics as a subject of study is based upon the contributions of many sciences, but it is an art itself, with its own appropriate divisions of content and management that concern themselves with very real and significant practical responsibilities in the art of living.

Suiting Biological Instruction to Human Values

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In the United States of America teachers of biology in secondary schools are recognizing that there is need for new objectives in teaching biology. These new objectives are in full harmony with the new philosophy of greater *utility* in education. Utility first in the economy of classroom time, but much more important, utility in making subject matter more effective in development and efficiency in the lives of young people.

To evaluate the educational worth of Biology we must give it a three-fold objective. First, it must provide an orderly sequence of facts both of past and recent discovery. Too often in the past this has been the only emphasis. Second, it must develop a scientific habit of mind. Third, it must establish efficiency and satisfaction in relating scientific fact and scientific thinking to the solution of human problems. Naturally these last two objectives are much more difficult to attain than the first. They constitute utility or the measurement of the worth of a subject in human values.

Biological instruction in our secondary schools has succeeded fairly well in providing information. Because of it there is now a wider interest in all forms of living things and in their conservation. Through this type of instruction Biology has won a fair share of efficient research workers, and industry has profited by it immeasurably.

But in the creation of a scientific habit of mind, and in making the average student biologically conscious in his daily living, our teaching of biology has not succeeded so well. Everywhere we find people guessing, taking a gambling

chance in making decisions in preference to reasoning. When ill we take a headache tablet instead of looking for the cause of our trouble. Love of ease prompts us still to worship the god of chance in preference to the more exacting, more effective god of Truth and Reason. Herein may be found one potent cause of discord in the lives of men and of nations, a cause which more careful training in scientific habits of thinking will certainly do much to eliminate.

Teachers of biology are not greatly to blame for this unhappy condition. Our methods in biological instruction have come to us by an evolutionary path of which we have no reason to be ashamed. Speculation and credulity were the order before true science was known. The few who caught the gleam of truth and sought to follow its path found great difficulty therein. But by the dawn of the nineteenth century enough scientific facts had been discovered to reveal a fairly complete picture of a universe governed by natural laws. So fascinating was the light of this new understanding and so exhilarating the freedom it gave from the bonds of ignorance and superstition, that our early great scientists at once became devotees of science for science's sake. Research for new truth and that alone became their white guiding star. Their zeal for science and the patterns they set for learning science have spread through our universities and colleges to our high school teachers, and many there be who have been touched by the sacred fire.

Thus we have come honestly by our objective in teaching science for science's sake. Adapting a line from Tennyson, we have like Nature been "so careful of the type of our instruction, so careless of the single life" Nevertheless as Tennyson continues, "So careful? From scarpéd chiff and quarried stone she cries, 'a thousand types are gone.'" So we, too, serving in an evolutionary world may well find it is time to discard or at least to reconstruct our purposes and methods. As teachers of biology and researchers in education we need to hitch our wagon to a nearer warmer star which like the sun will shed more warmth and radiance on human life.

Recently we have come to realize that science has other gifts for humanity than to produce devotees for itself. The inculcation of a more extensive use of the scientific habit of mind is one. Another is the establishment of a consciousness that biological law operates in the development of each individual and in the progress of the human race. To be conscious of cause and effect operating in all problems and events, and to realize that all progress in physical, mental or spiritual development follows an evolutionary course in improving specializations by their proper exercise: this is the objective biological training should accomplish for every individual. Such training will not only supply a broader, richer, deeper concept of the value of human life but will also provide utilitarian value in certain applied sciences, as for example in agriculture and home science.

The problem of arrangement of curricula and choice of subject matter best adapted to accomplish these results occasions no little difference of opinion. Teachers in various parts of America are putting the question to experimental trial. In the vicinity of Chicago, for example, a four-year health plan is being developed wherein the individual and his daily activities and needs are made the centre of study for greatest personal accomplishment. Other sections are allowing student interest under guidance to determine objectives and choice of subject matter. Both of these systems are radical departures from established methods and subject matter arrangement and necessarily both demand more than usual teaching skill for their success. Other examples might be added but these are enough to show there is an experimental trend in the United States to give biological instruction a more subjective influence on pupils.

We may well disregard for the moment radical experimental changes in curriculum and course of study content until they have proved their worth. Our most immediate progress will result from a re-evaluation of the subject matter offered in our textbooks. In general our greatest fault at present is in teaching certain phases of biology as abstract and isolated entities vaguely or indefinitely

related to each other. In reality the recognition of harmonious interrelationships is generally more challenging and quite as important as the isolated facts themselves. Allow me to point out a few outstanding examples.

The very vital principle of osmosis in biology is too often represented merely as molecular flow from less dense to a denser medium through a differentially permeable membrane, often called a semi-permeable membrane. Confusion is apt to arise in the minds of the pupils in the concept of molecular *density* which becomes clearer to them if associated with the laws of molecular diffusion. The molecular character of the membrane in relation to the molecules of both solute and solution is also a factor that is vital but seldom sufficiently explained. The result is that relatively few college freshmen coming in each year from accredited high schools are able to explain adequately the nature of these forces or to relate them intelligently to such biological processes as the absorption of foods or gases in solution by plants and animals. Inadequacy in understanding this one basic life process greatly handicaps the student's further progress in appreciating physiological processes.

Similarly the osmotic interchange of gases in respiration and photosynthesis are seldom basically understood in high school classrooms. The accessories to respiration are generally well taught, but the vital process of respiration itself, namely the release of energy for life processes is seldom sufficiently emphasized. If you doubt this statement, examine carefully high school biology texts. And ample proof is found in the frequent statement made by high school students that photosynthesis in green plants occurs in the daytime and respiration at night. It is not for more accurate concepts of these vital forces alone that I plead, but for ability to apply them more intimately to biological processes. This of necessity requires a more accurate conception of the forces themselves than the majority of our high school students at present attain.

A third example of deficiency in our biology teaching is that we do not relate health to the physiological functions

of the body. Dr. J. C. Rogers, Commissioner of Health Education in the United States, says in a recent bulletin, "As part of a one-year course in biology health is taught in a little better than nothing manner." This is from the view-point of a physician.

Dr. W. W. Charters, Ohio State University, in a recent educational address, places physiology and nutrition as one of three vital fields of study that we are greatly neglecting in our secondary schools. He has particular reference to the vital functions of enzymes, hormones, and vitamins which as subject matter we must admit are too slowly entering our courses of study. This is from the view-point of a noted educator. In the light of recent vitamin research, the minerals also acquire a new significance in health. Furthermore, we should no longer emphasize the proteins as building material or building stones of the body but should place greater emphasis on the properties and kinds of amino acids. In this phase of biology we are lagging ten to twenty years behind well established discovery.

I mention blood as a fourth item wherein our instruction needs improvement. Instruction in the mechanics of blood and in the organs concerned with its circulation needs no serious criticism, but there is a general lack of emphasis on blood as a dynamic influence in health. Its relation to anemia, leukemia, diabetes, and the distribution of hormones is important. From the many false ideas that are common expressions about blood being "thick" or "thin," "pure" or "impure" we may infer we are teaching too little about the true nature and the true functions of the blood. Just here allow me to suggest that the study of so specific a thing as blood can best be taught in connection with a series of animals. By so doing broader concepts are gained and attention is decentralized from too restricted attention to the human body. It was through a study of blood movements in many of the lower animals that William Harvey was led to the discovery of circulation of blood in the human body. Similarly by following the order of change from vesicle to vesicular system one by one the functions of mammalian blood

were revealed.

I shall put my next item in question form. Do we give enough attention when studying the nervous systems of animals to the relation between the type of the system and the efficiency of the animal in its environment? Do we make use of this study of nerve tissues as we might, to demonstrate the nature of mental development and self control? What checks and balances do we point out as essential to a well balanced mind; and do we demonstrate as we could how failure to control these checks and balances leads to self destruction? I recommend a re-evaluation of subject matter relating to the physiology and hygiene of the nervous system. I feel it can well be done without infringing on the field of psychology.

If we would respond to Dr. Charters' criticism, previously referred to, it will be necessary to reconstruct our teaching of bacteria making it include the relation of these organisms to enzymes, toxins and anti-toxins, allergy, immunity and decay. In many schools sanitation is almost the exclusive application of this branch of biology. We may add also that the principle of earth to earth and dust to dust as essential to the continuance of life on earth is seldom sufficiently stressed.

Finally, let us not forget that our average high school student graduates with little or no clear concept of the very vital influence that the proper functioning of the sex organs have on physical and mental development as well as on general health. Having as a rule no adequate source of correct knowledge concerning these organs outside of school, but on the other hand having many avenues for incorrect information, our youth at present are forced to make guessing decisions regarding the care and functions of sex organs and impulses. Thus through ignorance and misinformation our youth are frequently led into difficulty and often into tragedy. We have no one to blame for this condition but ourselves. If we know no "safe and sane" way to introduce this subject into our instruction it is expedient that we speedily find one.

In conclusion, we have briefly indicated that we may by wise revision and re-evaluation of the subject matter of our curricula in terms of human values do much to improve the effectiveness of our instruction in biology and contribute thereby to a more rational and advanced civilization. Teachers of science in general must take a major part in divorcing students from a too restricted memory type of learning, substituting therefore the scientific method of learning by observation and reasoning on the basis of cause and effect. If we as individuals would make the most of the opportunities life affords us, skill must be acquired in applying the basic facts of biology to the solution of daily problems that arise in our lives or in those that we may control.

The inability of man to fit himself into his environment is undoubtedly the underlying cause of most of the world's unhappiness. In this need Kipling's "Law of the Jungle" applies. But quite as definitely if civilization is to advance, our people must be trained in ability not only to adapt themselves to environment, they must prepare themselves to change that environment by the application of scientific discovery to keep pace with their advancing ideals. Logically biology must assume a large share in this new training.

For this work teachers of the highest type are needed. Our part as teachers in colleges and universities is not only to prepare such teachers thoroughly, but also to demand of certifying agencies that ill-prepared individuals be not allowed to assume so important a responsibility.

Learning and Science*

Polish Organization Committee

During the period in which Poland was partitioned by three foreign Powers, Polish science had to adapt its activities to the attitude of each partitioning Power towards the civic liberties of its subjects. Nowhere did it work under normal conditions, but its situation was the most favourable under Austrian rule during the last decade before the war. In those provinces, academical schools, numerous scientific societies and the Cracow Academy of Science promoted the aims of Polish Science. Many eminent Polish men of learning, unable to find tolerable conditions for scientific research at home, had to work abroad, giving their labour and talents to the service of other nations, and thus the glory of Polish science suffered unavoidable loss as her adepts appeared in the rank of foreign organizations.

However, in spite of the loss of her freedom and of difficulties in the organization of cultural work, the nation constantly aimed at pursuing scientific research. In certain periods indeed, in spite of external circumstances, it revealed a vital energy for scientific work proving how flourishing it could have been under normal conditions.

A striking illustration of this is the development of Polish science and culture in former Galicia after the Polonization of the universities of Cracow and Lwow and the increase of the intellectual movement in the former Russian Provinces of Poland after the opening of the Central College (Szkoła Główna) in Warsaw.

Since Poland regained her independence, and even during the war, the organization of scientific work received a new

* This paper deals not only with science and science teaching, but also with other problems.

impetus. New scientific societies arose, the former altered their organization and statutes, spreading their activities over the whole of Poland by opening sections in other parts of the country.

Much has been done in independent Poland for the development of science by the government and, in particular, by the Ministry of Education and Cults. From 1919 it supports scientific activity by granting subventions, giving moral and material help to scientific societies, museums, libraries and to institutions for scientific research; by subsidizing scientific publication; by participating in the organization of international scientific relations through meetings, congresses, and unions; by establishing new universities (Poznań) and re-opening former ones (Vilno); by increasing the number of chairs in the Cracow, Lwow and Warsaw universities, and finally by maintaining scientific research stations abroad as well as professorships and lectures at foreign universities.

In 1920 the government created a special fund for National Culture designed for cultural and scientific investments.

At present, Poland has 5,000 scientific workers: professors, teachers and assistants in the higher colleges, members of the Polish Academy of Science (in Cracow) which belongs to the Union Académique Internationale; scientific societies of academic character in the chief centres of learning, such as the Warsaw Scientific Society, the Scientific Society in Lwow, the Society of the Friends of Science in Poznań and Vilno. Societies for the promotion of learning exist also in several non-university towns—Plock, Torun, Przemyśl. The number of special scientific societies existing at present with the object of cultivating numerous branches of theoretic and practical knowledge exceeds 100, without counting societies for the encouragement of general culture. The oldest and most important are: Copernicus Natural History Society, Technical Academy in Lwow, Polish Society in Lwow, Mickiewicz Literary Society in Lwow, Legal Societies of Warsaw and Lwow, Medical Society in Vilno (existing over

100 years), Mianowski Fund Institute (for supporting science), (existing since 1871).

Among other organizations we should mention Museums and Collections, of which Poland possesses about 100. The largest are: National Museum in Warsaw, Museum of Industry and Agriculture, the Ethnographical Museum, and Zoological and Archeological State Museums. In Cracow we have: the National Museum, the Czartoryski Museum, the Wawel Castle, the Physiographic and Archeological Museum of the Academy of Science, the Czapski Museum. In Lwow we find the Dzieduszycki, the Ossolineum, the Municipal Museums, the Ukrainian Museums of Szewczenko and Szeptycki Societies; in Poznań there are Wielkopolski and Mielżyński Museums; in Vilno, the Museum of the Friends of Science; finally museums in Przemyśl, Płock and the Tatra (in Zakopane) and other smaller ones. Besides institutes in the High Schools, there exist several other research institutions, such as the Magnetic Observatory in Swider, the Chemical Research Institute, the Nencki Experimental Biology Institute, the Anthropological Institute (Scientific Society)—all in Warsaw.

Poland has also some scientific stations abroad; those in Paris and Rome are organized by the Polish Academy of Science and liberally supported by the Government; scholarships are created in zoological stations at Naples and Roscoff.

Poland belongs to the following international scientific unions: Conseil International de Recherches, Union Académique Internationale, Conseil Permanent de Coopération Intellectuelle, Bureau International d'Education. Institut d'Etudes Slaves, Baltic Geodesian Commission and other smaller ones

Literature, Art, and Artistic Culture

The activities of the Ministry include art and artistic culture.

The first official body in this respect was the Section of Fine Arts, created on December 1st, 1917, within the Depart-

ment of Religious Cults and Public Instruction of the Provisionary State Council of the Kingdom of Poland.

By the Decree of December 5, 1918, a Ministry of Art and Culture was founded for the purpose of superintending "and protecting art, literature, monuments, art museums, theatres and the aesthetic culture of the nation." By the law of February 17, 1922, the Ministry of Art and Culture was transformed into a Department of Art in the Ministry of Education.

Literature

In the domain of literature, the Ministry supports the activities of literary organizations through which it protects writers and literary initiative. It gives financial help to eminent writers, enables them to work, helps the development of gifted young authors by granting scholarships and subventions. In its care for facilitating conditions of work for writers, the Ministry supports literary publications and institutions having for their aim the protecting of Polish literature and writers.

The Ministry helped to organize and gives material support to the Polish Academy of Literature, called into existence by a regulation of the Council of Ministers in 1933. Thanks to the help of the Ministry the Polish Academy of Literature grants rewards and scholarships, patronizes important publications of serious book firms, and co-operates with a number of State authorities and social institutions, organizing public meetings and discussions and representing Polish letters at home and abroad.

In 1936 the Polish Academy of Literature consisted of the following members: Wacław Berent, Julius Kaden-Bandrowski (General Secretary), Ferdinand Goetel, Karol Irzykowski, Julius Kleiner, Bolesław Leśmian, Zofia Nalkowska, Zenon Miriam-Przesmycki, Karol Rostworowski, Wincenty Rzymowski, Wacław Sieroszewski (President), Leopold Staff (Vice-President), George Szaniawski, Thaddeus Zieliński and

Thaddeus Boy-Zeleński.

Since 1925, the Ministry has been granting the literary reward of the Minister of Education. Until the present time the following authors have received the above-mentioned reward: Stefan Zeromski (1925), Kornel Makuszyński (1926), Leopold Staff (1927), Julius Kaden-Bandrowski (1928), Ferdinand Goetel (1929), George Szaniawski (1930), Karol Hubert Rostworowski (1931), Wacław Berent (1932), Maria Dąbrowska (1933), Kazimiera Iłakowicz (1934) Zofia Nalkowska (1935).

Moreover, the Ministry carries on a quantity of organizing work, protecting literature, drawing up laws and regulations and supporting the claims of literature in its dealings with other State authorities.

Theatres

In this domain the Ministry gives systematic protection to frontier outposts: permanent theatres in Vilno, Toruń, Stanisławów and itinerant theatres in the regions of Vilno-Novogródek, Volhynia-Lublin, Stanisławów-Tarnopol and Pomorze. In addition to the above, the Ministry gives occasional help to many theatre outposts in the provinces and in the capital. The Ministry also supports the activities of the Society for Spreading Theatrical Culture which, after organizing 5 theatres in the capital, has opened a popular theatre, the object of which is to develop the love for theatrical art in the outskirts of the town, among the poorer population.

In order to secure a supply of qualified young actors and stage managers, the Ministry has opened a State Institute of Theatrical Art, to which it extends its protection.

Moreover, the Ministry inquires into the current life of the theatres in Poland, carries on a survey of the work of the theatres and watches over the standard of the theatres in compliance with the law concerning public shows.

Plastic Arts

The Ministry also extends its care to other fine arts.

In 1933 the reward of the Minister of Education for plastic art was established. The first laureate was Leon Wyczółkowski (1934), the second Wojciech Jastrzebowski (1935).

Besides State yearly rewards, the Ministry grants prizes for large collective exhibitions (salons) and for prominent works of art or the creative activity of individual artists.

Independently of granting rewards and subventioning individual exhibitions, the Ministry supports plastic art by purchasing exhibits for the State collections. A large part of these purchases are sent to galleries and others to decorate public buildings.

Besides supporting exhibitions of contemporary and retrospective art, the Ministry gives an impetus to artistic life by subventioning contests or assigning rewards.

The Ministry takes particular care that all kinds of artistic production should radiate from artistic centres all over the country. The Institute for the Propaganda of Art and itinerant art exhibitions are under ministerial protection.

Material help given to individual plastic artists by the Ministry has consisted chiefly in scholarships granted according to the decision of a specially summoned Commission of Representatives of the artistic world. It also gives temporary help and subventions for the above-mentioned purchases.

The approval of the erection of monuments belongs to the Ministry. It also co-operates with other ministries in administrative and legal matters (customs, passports, exportation of works of art and so on).

The question of art schools also belongs to the Ministry.

By the law of March 18, 1932, the Warsaw School of Fine Arts was transformed into an Academy of Fine Arts and thereby placed on the same footing as the Academy in Cracow. The third higher school of art is the Fine Art Section at the Stefan Batory University in Vilno.

In secondary schools of plastic arts inquiry has been carried out to ascertain how far Polish life requires artistically trained individuals for craft, industry and decorative art. The result of this inquiry has been the organization of secondary State Art Schools (in connection with the law of March 11, 1932 on school organization and with the law concerning private schools and educational establishments of April 20, 1932.)

The Ministry supervises and protects private schools of plastic art by way of inspections and subventions and various facilities.

Music

The greatest attention is given to music schools. Besides the three State conservatories of music (Warsaw, Poznań, Katowice,) there are over three hundred music schools of various types, both as regards organization and programme. A reorganization of these schools by means of an uniform programme and an inquiry into the musical qualifications of the teachers is being carried out.

The Ministry carries on inspection of the music schools, it being one of the most urgent preliminary work connected with organizing music schools according to modern principles. In order to raise the level of orchestras and amateur choruses, the Ministry arranges courses for conductors. The first of these courses, organized in 1935 at the Vacation Music Centre in Krzemieniec, has given excellent results.

The music reward of the Ministry of Education, inaugurated in 1928 for Polish composers, was assigned to Felicyan Szopski in 1935 for the whole course of his artistic activities.

The Ministry takes interest in young composers and executants and has granted a series of scholarships to musicians. These scholarships are given to persons studying at home and abroad.

The Ministry helps many music schools from the credit sums assigned for subsidies which are also granted to some

associations and musical publications. It also supports single individuals working in the field of musical theory.

The budget of the Ministry also gives help to organizations promoting the musical movement of the country.

Conservation of Monuments

The Ministry watches over the conservation of monuments. The basis of its organization was given by the regulation of the President of the Republic of March 6, 1928, together with the regulation of the Council of Ministers of September 23, 1932, on the manner of preserving objects of artistic value being the property of the State and by the law of January 23, 1933, altering the above regulations.

The State is now divided into ten Conservator voivodeship sections: (1) Warsaw and the Lodz voivodeship, with a separate section at the office of the Government Commissar for the city of Warsaw; (2) voivodeship of Warsaw and Bialystok, conservator section in the Warsaw voivodeship office; and similarly (3) voivodeship of Cracow—section at the Cracow voivodeship office; (4) voivodeship of Lwow, Tarnopol and Stanislawow, conservator section in the Lwow voivodeship office; (5) voivodeship of Poznań and Pomorze, conservator section in the Poznań voivodeship office; (6) voivodeship of Vilno and Nowogródek, conservator section in the Vilno office; (7) voivodeship of Kielce, conservator section in the Kielce office; (8) voivodeship of Dublin and Polesie, conservator section in the Lublin office; (9) voivodeship of Volhynia, conservator section in the Luck office; (10) voivodeship of Silesia, conservator section in the Katowice office.

The supreme authority in the matter in the Conservation of monuments is the Ministry of Cults and Public Education. The Conservator in Chief has this office at that Ministry. He supervises the activities of the conservators and organizes their work.

Voivodeship authorities (voivodeship offices) supervise the conservation of monuments within the boundaries of the voivodeship through conservators nominated by the Ministry

of Education. The conservators are entrusted with the direct care of the monuments and objects of art with the exception of churches which, in accordance with the Concordate with the Apostolic See, are under a mixed commission consisting of secular and clerical members under the presidency of the Bishop in each diocese.

The duty of the voivodeship conservators are : (1) to pronounce as to the value of the monumental objects, giving them the status of "monument" in the legal sense; (2) to carry out the registration of monuments; (3) to give permission for work and repairs of the monuments; (4) to supervise the work; (5) to stop work performed without permission or in an unsuitable manner; (6) to grant permission for exporting works of art beyond the frontiers of the State; (7) to grant permission for archeological and paleontological research by means of excavations.

In their capacity as directors of the voivodeship sections of art, conservators are the advisers and informers of the Ministry in all matters connected with State protection of art and culture. Voivodeship conservators approve of projects for monuments from the artistic side, co-operate with the building authorities in matters of artistic buildings, and take part in district conservator commissions constituting advisory bodies for the voivodes as regards the conservation of monuments as well as episcopal mixed commissions.

Conservators take part in meetings in order to harmonize their activity with that of other conservators and to get mutually acquainted with the result of each other's work and methods of investigation.

The question of the scientific classification of monuments remains in strict connection with their conservation. This work (at present only with monuments of art) is concentrated in the Central Bureau for the classification of monuments of art in the Ministry of Education and is under the immediate direction of the Chief Conservator. There the chief archives are kept, consisting of photographs, cliches, descriptions and card indexes as well as catalogues. There is also a special photographic laboratory.

Museums

A law was passed on March 28, 1933 concerning the protection of public museums, as well as a regulation of the Ministry of Education (February 13, 1935) concerning the State Museum Council. By this law, State protection was extended to museums, the organization of museums and the furthering of their scientific, artistic and technical aims.

Constant inspection is carried on and advice given as to the organization and work of museums, and as far as possible subventions are granted for the reorganization or maintenance of museum collection.

A rational organization of museums has begun and a limit has been set to the uncontrolled opening of museums by vindicating the exclusive right of the Ministry of Education to give permission to establish new public museums. The confirmation of statutes introduces also a certain order into controversial questions regarding the size and prerogatives of each.

In view of the variety of museum problems and the part played by them in the cultural life of the whole community, a State Museum Council has been created as an advisory organ in the Ministry of Education.

A Direction of State Collections of Art has also been founded in the Ministry of Education by the regulation of the Council of Ministers on February 7, 1930. This Direction administers all the State collections of artistic and historical character. It takes care of the collections in the Royal Castle in Warsaw, in Lazienki Palace, and in representative State buildings. Besides this, it possesses a gallery of Polish art (now in the Baryczki House), a numismatic cabinet (Marszałkowska Street 18), and a collection of contemporary graphic art and an art library. It has a section in Cracow, which includes an art collection and the furniture of the Wawel Royal Castle.

The Direction of State Collections of Art possesses a studio where work connected with the conservation of mov-

able objects of art (chiefly the restoration of pictures) is carried on.

SECONDARY EDUCATION SECTION

Chairman: Mr. Oren E. Long, Superintendent, Department of Public Instruction, Hawaii.

Vice-Chairman: Mr. John C. McGlade, Deputy Superintendent, Junior and Senior High Schools, San Francisco, California, U. S. A.

Secretary: Miss Elizabeth McK. Moore, 305 Bon Air, La Jolla, California, U. S. A.

Co-operating Members: Mr. Fusataro Nishimura, Principal, First Middle School of Tokyo Prefecture, Japan.

Mr. Genzo Ichikawa, Principal, Ohyu-Gakuen, Tokyo, Japan.

Place of Meeting: Room No. 38.

First Session *Wednesday, 4th August, 9 a.m.-*
12 (noon)

Second Session *Thursday, 5th August, 9 a.m.-*
12 (noon)

First Session

Special Characteristics of Education in the
Middle Schools of Japan

Mr. Fusataro Nishimura

*Principal, First Middle School of Tokyo Prefecture,
Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 456)

Labour Training and Vocational Training
in Japanese Middle Schools

Mr. Sataro Yamanouchi

Principal, Akashi Middle School, Hyogo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 467)

Secondary Education for Girls in Japan

Mr. Genzo Ichikawa

Principal, Ohyu-Gakuen, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 472)

Secondary Education Section



Mr. Oren E. Long
Chairman



Mr. John McGlade
Vice Chairman



Mr. Fusataro Nishimura
Co-operating Member



Mr. Genzo Ichikawa
Co operating Member



Sir Henry Watlington
(See P. 405)



Dr. Karl Drück
(See P. 408)



Miss Alice R. Morison
(See P. 446)



Mr. Aquilino L. Cariño
(See P. 415)



Miss F. Housley
(See P. 468)

How to Promote the Understanding of the Nations so as to Bring Peace and Goodwill?

Sir Henry Watlington

*Mayor of Hamilton; Member of Board of
Education, Bermuda Islands*

Before approaching this question, inasmuch as I represent Bermuda, one of the smallest though oldest colonies of Great Britain, and in order to show the why and wherefore of my presence at this, the Seventh Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, I should like to preface my remarks by a short comprehensive statement about the Colony I represent.

Bermuda lies between 32° and 33° North Latitude and 66° and 67° West Longitude. Its area is about 19 square miles. Although above the frost belt owing to being surrounded by the waters of the Gulf Stream, there is no frost, and throughout the year there is eternal spring. Its population in 1935 was 30,204, of which 11,935 are white and 18,269 are coloured or negro.

The negro population has progressed amazingly since its emancipation in 1834 and is very ambitious for scholastic education.

Great Britain gives the Colony a free hand in managing its own affairs, matters effecting Empire and Race being the only ones which are referred to the Home Government.

The Government establishment consists of a Governor, Upper and Lower Houses, while the Governor has an advisory council in dealing with executive measures. A number of executive boards are appointed to deal with Health, Trade, Immigration, Agriculture, Education, etc.

The public debt is small; in fact, assets exceed liabilities; there are no death dues, income taxes or real estate taxes

excepting in the last case for parochial purposes). The annual revenue, about £400,000, is principally derived from ad valorem and specific duties on imports. The expenditure on education is about 8½% of the whole annual amount for all purposes. There are no motor-cars.

Bermuda is an all-the-year-round tourist resort, about 90% of its eighty thousand tourists in 1935 being from the United States of America. Bermuda's flora is almost identical with that of Honolulu.

It's geological formation is entirely coral.

I am and have been Chairman of the Board of Education of Bermuda since 1925, and when the invitation from the Association reached the Board early this year, I determined, provided my many other duties permitted, to be present. Accordingly I am here and now must proceed with the question before us. I fear that my ability and experience are far from adequate to deal with such an important item, nevertheless I will do my best.

To begin with, what is the chief end of educational conferences?

Is it to exchange ideas and learn what is being done in your neighbour's back yard only? If so, unless this enables one to measure results in his own sphere with that of others and be stimulated or stimulate, I cannot see any advantage. Where the conference is international as this one, of course there is a sort of fraternity established between attending members; but this is not likely to be lasting and is difficult to transfer by members to their own areas. If the conference is national, only such as the British Imperial Conferences at Whitehall at which I was a representative in 1923, there is considerable advantage in co-ordinating and standardizing systems; but is that the aim of an international conference? I hold it is not and that its ultimate purpose should be to establish some international seat of learning where our youth could get together and mould their thought and outlook towards a better understanding while their minds are plastic and receptive. Through the means of transport by air, land and sea, the world gets smaller every day. Are we going to

allow the individual prejudices and ambitions of nations to continue and leave the settlement of differences to the force of arms? It is true that the getting together, such as the League of Nations and other agencies have provided, has not so far yielded that measure of success that was hoped for or confidently expected; but bit by bit cannot differences be overcome and, as it were by erosion, break down the barriers of conflict? It seems to me that the W.F.E.A. could achieve a great justification for its existence if it could bring about the establishment of two international schools, one for each sex, to take care of the upper grades of secondary education, say from the fourth forms upward, mastered and pupiled internationally on some proportionate base. This detail and all others in connection with the institution could be worked out by a committee of the Association.

With regard to the location of such an institution my suggestion would be the Hawaiian Islands, which lie where East meets West and North meets South. Naturally it will be held that such a location would not be international as it is the territory of so predominant a country as the United States of America, but perhaps that country, so anxious to avoid international complications and permeated with the desire for peace, may be willing to contribute one of the islands of this group to be held internationally for such a purpose.

I know that my suggestion is a novel one, but I dare to bring it forward for consideration as my humble contribution towards the ideal we should all look for—international understanding.

High School Girl Students of the Past Generation

Miss Tami Mitani

Principal, Joshi Gakuin, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 480)

System of Higher Public Instruction in Germany

Dr. Karl Drück

*Regierungsdirektor, Württembergisches
Kultministerium, Stuttgart, Deutschland*

The national socialistic revolution is showing its influence, as in all sections in public life, so also in regard to education. Nay, education and educators in particular are put before high tasks, for, according to an important utterance of Reich's Chancellor Adolf Hitler, the aim of the revolution is not to grasp political power but to educate men. This means that in Germany not a small section of the population is to govern the people, but that the whole people is to be inspired by the new ideas and is to be convinced of their rightness and correctness. Only thus, we believe, the existence of our Reich and life of our people can be safeguarded for the future. The serious will to do so is manifested by quite a number of reforms in the sphere of education.

One of the first measures was the new system of teacher's education by the creation of high schools for teachers, which had the double purpose of removing the faults of the former system and forming new places of research for all educational and pedagogical questions. This transformation of teacher's education was, in the opinion of Reich's Education Minister Rust, of particular importance, for if we go to the very bottom of the matter, we are convinced that all educational changes can't be infected by mere organization measures but only by living men who are the bearers of the new ideas, and convinced of their rightness. I can't go into details of the new Teachers' High Schools in this connection, but I thought it a matter of importance to make clear to you by mentioning them that we endeavour to go to the root of educational questions by starting with

the educator.

The system of High Schools has in the course of the reform experienced changes and is still on the way of transformation. I shall try to offer you a picture of the most important measures and plans. Even here I wish to draw your attention to the fact that the principal point of the reform is the underlying idea and its meaning, and that organization is to procure only the necessary conditions for the realization of the ultimate aim.

The chairman of the German delegation has presented already in a broadcast the fundamental ideas of our education and shall give another address on this subject during this Congress. I may, therefore, be allowed only to indicate briefly the most essential points. Since everything unnatural will have to be paid and suffered for, no German boy and no German girl will leave school without being convincingly impressed by the fundamental laws of life and by the necessity of observing them. In particular this applies to those who pass through higher school, and who are later called upon to take important positions in public life. They have to learn biology and natural science, as well as history and the lessons drawn from it, in order to know by deep studies the presuppositions and necessities of a peaceful community life within their own nation and of peaceful co-operation of all nations, in order to safeguard the life of their own people and at the same time to contribute to the progress of human civilization.

A further important point in our education is the endeavour not to disturb the unity, set by God and Nature, of body, soul and spirit, but to form, by their steady and equal development, a harmonious man, with whom all powers, along the conditions of his biological inheritance, are cultivated to the highest possible degree. This is why we lay great stress upon education of body and character, for we believe that a healthy body is an important condition of useful and comprehensive work in human life, just as necessary as character and will-power or the willingness and readiness to serve; all are factors which are to safeguard

the use of knowledge and efficiency for the benefit of the whole people. This does not mean that spiritual education will be neglected; by emphasizing education of body and character we only wish to indicate that we are setting up our new comprehensive education in all respects in the place of the one-sided, more intellectual educational tradition of the past. For this reason all fears and assertions that we disregard and neglect the spiritual side of education of the new Germany are baseless. We are proud of our spiritual and scientific accomplishments in the past, and we wish not only to conserve but to develop and promote them further by all means and with all our strength. We know that high scientific accomplishments are a necessary condition if we want to master the difficulties arising from the unfavourable geographical position of our country, from the lack of raw materials and from the smallness of our territory as a means of our subsistence. Such knowledge and conviction are enough to prevent us from making the mistake of under-estimating scientific and professional accomplishment.

. And now let me speak about organization.

Germany has returned this year again to the 12-year curriculum of education of higher schools. These 12 years are composed of four years of elementary school and eight years of higher school. The 13th year introduced after the World War has been omitted again so that the total duration of preparation for higher professions be not unduly prolonged, that a young man may take up the practical work in his profession in early years, and that he will soon be in a position to establish a family as the most important foundation of national life. Furthermore, we have started this year to simplify the different types of our higher schools. The historical development of the German Reich had resulted in a multitude of types of higher schools, which is not necessary and in practice detrimental; not necessary because every generally recognized idea of education makes a certain simplification of the material of education possible.

During the period of humanism one type of school was established: the humanistic gymnasium, and not a multitude

of schools; in the same way we wish to create the German Upper School now in conformance with our own conceptions. The upper school will be the principal form of German higher education. I have already mentioned the principal material to be taught there. I must add that German language, literature and so on take, of course, a prominent place therein, and that the first foreign language will be English, and the second Latin. The knowledge of the English language as an important world language shall give to every student at a higher school the necessary outlook into the wide world; the Latin language shall open to him the past. In the so-called "Oberstufe" of the upper school (that is the three last classes) there will be a strong differentiation: every student can follow his talents, his interests and plants for his future profession by either concentrating upon the linguistic historical course with a third foreign language, or upon courses of mathematics and natural science. Thus we hope to realize the unity of general education without neglecting the manifoldness of talents and life. Practically speaking, such a unification was necessary because modern life with its ever-moving circulation and traffic carries people from one part of the Reich into the other, and because the parents must be given assurance that their children will be able to join the school at their new residence without difficulties.

Apart from this principal type of higher school, the Reich's Minister of Education ordered a limited number of humanistic gymnasiums to subsist in the conviction that the German people should not abandon contact with the mentally and racially congenial Greek culture, and that a certain number of people specially gifted and devoted to this task should be from their young days initiated into the spirit of the Classics and therefore learn the Greek language. The scholars of this kind of school learn Latin as their first foreign language, while Greek and English take the second and third places respectively.

In the framework of this general scheme I should like to mention a few details of special importance. A novelty of National Socialism is to be found in the national educa-

tional institutes (Nationalsozialistische Erziehungsanstalten). They are boarding-schools in which an élite of young boys receive special training. He who intends to pass a school of this kind must, apart from good achievements in sciences, excel in sports and gymnastics. Should he show a deficiency in regard to his character and prove incapable of comradeship he will have to leave the school. For in the attitude towards comradeship a character manifests itself. It is again comradeship that gives the young man an opportunity to practise the necessary self-education which, through the institution of the Hitler-Youth movement, we try to implant in the youth as a whole. Comradeship develops the qualities of leadership and the readiness to follow the leader. It, therefore, does not produce mass instincts but trains personalities who combine the will of higher self-perfection with the readiness to subordinate their personal ambitions to the necessities of the community. Moreover, the system of boarding schools established for the national educational institutes affords not only an intensified mental training but an increased physical education higher developed craftsmanship through manual instruction, which by the way is given in all our schools, and finally musical training and practice. All these items are necessary for all-round education. The boarding school will, therefore, always have its place in the new educational system of Germany. The National Educational Institutes are not preparatory schools for any special profession; their graduates may take up any profession they like.

The source of life of any nation is the country, not the city. This is why we were led to a strong furtherance of the rural elementary and professional schools. On the other hand, we are taking safeguards to prevent the highly gifted students from rural districts from being excluded from higher education, either for financial or geographical reasons. On the contrary, we want to warrant national solidarity also in the sphere of higher professions by supplying them again and again with talented men from the great masses of the people. To attain this particular object, the "Aufbauschule" has been established which follows the elementary school after

six years of instruction and leads, in the course of six years, to a fully recognized graduation. In so far as the Aufbauschule has the character of a boarding school, it combines with its social task all advantages of boarding school education. There are sufficient scholarships and other subventions in order to make poor students wishing to enter the schools independent of the financial circumstances of their families. This sort of school is, therefore, specially qualified to give every young German a chance to advance. There are Aufbauschulen also for girls.

Greatest importance is attached to girls' education. There exists, of course, an appropriate number of higher girls' schools. Wherever necessary, new schools are founded in order to satisfy the demands of women's education. Men and women enjoy equal rights. The woman enjoys the highest respect in national socialistic Germany, but nature has given different tasks to men and women. Therefore, our aim of education is the manly man and the womanly woman. Actually a new creation is the "Frauenoberschule," women's upper school with three classes, which is a variation of the ordinary last classes of the higher girls' schools. There particular stress is laid upon housekeeping, sanitation, children's education and other womanly functions; the Frauenoberschule ends with the examination of maturity and is a good foundation for the preparation of female professions; at the same time it is a practical training for the necessities of life. The ordinary higher scientific girls' school which corresponds with the Oberschule for boys, of course, continues to operate as before with the only difference, in comparison to former times, that the womanly side of education is more accentuated.

The chief object of this section is the problem of education towards understanding and goodwill among nations. I wish to assure you that no other nation can have a deeper appreciation for this mission than the German people and German education. As a matter of course we educate our youth towards an unconditional readiness to serve and a passionate love of our own people, since we are convinced

that such service and the maintenance of the stability and rights of the Reich is our highest God-given duty towards the nation into which we were born. But just as deeply we plant into the hearts of the young Germans the respect for other nations and the desire to live in peace with them. It is our "Weltanschauung" which teaches us that mutual respect of the others' rights of existence represents the only solid foundation for the well-being, not only of one's own nation, but of all mankind as well. We educate the individual to defend his honour, and we consider our national honour our highest treasure and will never be ready to abandon it. But just as deeply we respect the honour of other peoples and inspire our youth with the same ideal.

No people has suffered more from the violation of these principles than the German, on whom the post-war distress has imposed heavier sufferings than on any other nation. Nevertheless, we have given no room to the spirit of revenge in our hearts nor in our education. We fully appreciate the necessity and the benefits of peace and desire to maintain it by eliminating all misunderstandings. Our nationalism strives for the highest development of the German people, but does not set an envious eye on what belongs to other nations, who may, on their side, develop their unquestioned national rights along their own lines. If, in doing so, all nations raise themselves to the highest standards, and if, at the same time, they accord to other nations the same goodwill and respect which they wish to enjoy themselves, then we believe they will lay the most solid foundation for peace and thereby deliver the highest contribution to humanity. We implant this attitude in our youth, knowing that the fate of mankind lies in the hands of the coming generation. For this reason we work for the promotion of the international exchange of students as much as possible, for only he who comes to know another people will be able to understand them, and only he who learns to understand will learn to respect. For this reason the national educational institutes (Nationalpolitische Erziehungsanstalten), within the framework of general exchange

of students, are sending German boys out to foreign countries and are receiving from abroad guests in rapidly increasing numbers. These youngsters are receiving absolutely the same treatment, instruction, etc. as the German inmate of the boarding house of the institute. There can hardly be another more efficient way to introduce a foreign boy into the system and spirit of German education and, above all, into the true comradeship cultivated at our institutes. We would be only too glad to receive, in the general exchange of students, more and more boys from all your countries. The German delegation shall appreciate it from all their hearts if this Congress, and this section in particular, will lend its hands to the realization of our proposal. Bringing youth together we shall build up a new world.

Our Experiment in Secondary Education

Mr. Aquilino L. Cariño

Bulacan High School, Malolas, Bulacan, P. I.

I shall begin my discussion of the subject, Our Experiment in Secondary Education, by first making some observations of the conditions affecting our secondary school work in the Philippine Islands, in order that we may understand better the problem with which we Filipinos are confronted and for which we are conducting the present experiment.

The present system of secondary education in the Philippine Islands, according to the 1935 Annual Report of the Director of Education, consists of 114 secondary schools, of which 45 are academic and general, and 69 are vocational. The courses offered in these schools are of four years' duration, based upon seven years of elementary schooling. In general, these schools are co-educational except those which, by the nature of the training they are giving, are either

intended for boys or for girls only. The total enrolment in these schools in 1935 was 55,655 or 4.35 % of the total enrolment in primary, intermediate, secondary, and collegiate grades. These schools are being financed by the Philippine Commonwealth Government from funds derived from taxation, although most of the academic and general high schools also charge tuition fees ranging from P 10.00 to P 30.00 per student. Aside from the tuition fee, a matriculation fee of P 2.00 is also charged of each student regardless of his school. The money collected from tuition fees is used to help pay the salaries of teachers, while that collected from matriculation fees is used to purchase library books and athletic equipment.

This system of secondary education was started in 1902 when the first academic high school was established in Manila. Upon the establishment of this school, the people, especially those belonging to the poor and the middle classes, immediately saw the opportunity for their children to acquire an education that was denied them during the pre-American régime. As a result of this, there was a continuous demand for more high schools until there had been established at least one secondary school in each of the 50 provinces and cities constituting the Philippine Archipelago. The Philippine Government, through the Bureau of Education, did not only establish academic high schools but also vocational schools. We have separate schools for each of the following courses: normal, commerce, agriculture, trade, nautical, and home economics. It was surprising that with all these vocational schools offering free instruction and training, the Filipino children kept crowding to the academic high schools, so much so that in 1931 the enrolment in the academic high schools far exceeded that of all the vocational schools combined. The proportion of enrolments between the academic and the vocational schools in 1931 was 3 to 1 in favour of the academic. The fact that enrolments in the academic high schools were increasing faster than those in the vocational, and the fact that only one-fourth of the graduates of the academic high schools go to college every year, are enough

to arouse the anxiety of our educators and serious-minded citizens over the future of our economic and social life. Several devices were used to attract students to the vocational schools. The vocational curricula were enriched and propaganda was launched by the teachers themselves, and still the vocational enrolment did not improve much. Some academic high schools even raised their tuition fees, while the vocational schools continued to give free education to all. This again brought but little gain. It was observed that the students' preference for the academic high school did not necessarily show a dislike for the vocational. As a matter of fact, some students were even frank enough to admit that if the vocational schools would only give college preparatory training also, many would transfer to the vocational. But to make the vocational school a college preparatory school is out of the question. It was clear, therefore, that it was the academic curriculum that needed reorganization. Our problem then was "Is it possible to offer in the academic curriculum, with its present set-up, some vocational courses without eliminating its propaedeutic or college preparatory function?" To attempt to give this question an answer in the affirmative, the General Curriculum was organized. After careful study of this curriculum on one hand, and the conditions already mentioned on the other, it was decided to try it out in two high schools in 1932. It is still untimely to judge definitely the result of the work so far done in these two schools, but at least indications show that it will in due time realize its objective. It is fast winning followers in the provinces, so that out of the 45 that are not vocational schools 32 are now using the general curriculum.

The major objective of this curriculum is to provide a well-balanced education that will enable an individual to earn a self-respecting livelihood and at the same time enable him to make wise adjustments in his environment. From this objective it is clear that the new curriculum aims to meet the needs of the larger number of students who must join in life's struggle and responsibility immediately after

graduation from high school, and at the same time provide training to the upper quartile of the high school population who have the ability to do college work. This is accomplished by permitting those students who have good scholastic records to take all the subjects in the academic curriculum and, in addition, one vocational course. On the other hand, those whose records are not so good are advised to drop mathematics and physics and, in their stead, take three units of vocational training.

There are two types of this curriculum, Type A and Type B. Type B differs from Type A in that, instead of requiring the vocational courses for graduation, it makes them only optional or elective. When a subject is taken in addition to those that are required, it is called optional. When it is taken as substitute for mathematics or physics, it is elective. The following are the subjects offered in these two types:

Type A

First Year

Literature	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Composition	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
World History & Current Events	(4 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
General Math.	(1 40-minute period a week ; 1 credit)
	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)

Second Year

Lit. & Comp.	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
General Science	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
U. S. History & Current Events	(4 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Art Appreciation I	(1 40-minute period a week ; $\frac{1}{2}$ credit)
Vocational Survey	(5 40-minute periods a week ; $\frac{1}{2}$ credit)
and Home Economics	(six units of six weeks each ; 5 double periods a week ; 1 credit)

Optional

Geometry, Music, Typewriting and Stenography

Third Year

Lit. & Comp.	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Biology	(5 80-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Advanced Arith.	(5 40-minute periods a week ; $\frac{1}{2}$ credit)
Oriental History	(5 40-minute periods a week ; $\frac{1}{2}$ credit)
Vocational and Home Economics	(5 80-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)

Optional

Art Appreciation II	($\frac{1}{2}$ credit)
Music	(1 credit)
Typewriting & Stenog.	(1 credit)
Spanish I	(1 credit)
Advanced Algebra	($\frac{1}{2}$ credit)

Fourth Year

Lit. & Comp.	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Economics	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Philippine Hist. & Gov't. & C.E.	(5 40-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Vocational and Home Economics	(5 80-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)

Optional subjects for the fourth year

Physics	(5 80-minute periods a week ; 1 credit)
Typewriting & Stenog.	(1 credit)
Spanish II	(1 credit)
Music	(1 credit)

Type B

First Year

Literature	(5) ; 1
Composition	(5) ; 1
U. S. History & Gov't. & Current Events	(5) ; 1
Algebra	(5) ; 1

Second Year

Lit. & Comp.	(5) ; 1
General Science	(5) ; 1
Gen. Hist..(Ancient & Medieval) & C. E.	(5) ; 1
Geometry	(5) ; 1

Optional or elective

Music, Typewriting & Stenography,
Vocational Survey and Home Economics (six units of
six weeks each)

Third Year

Lit. & Comp. (5), 1
Biology (5 D); 1
General Hist. (Modern) & C. E. (5); $\frac{1}{2}$
Oriental Hist. & C. E. (5); $\frac{1}{2}$
Adv. Algebra (5); $\frac{1}{2}$
Review Arithmetic (5); $\frac{1}{2}$

Optional or elective

Music, Typewriting & Stenog., Spanish, Vocational Work
or Home Economics
Art Appreciation I & II ($\frac{1}{2}$ cr. each)

Fourth Year

Lit. & Comp. (5); 1
Economics (5); 1
Philippine History & Gov't. & C. E. (5); 1
Physics (5); 1

Optional for fourth year

Music, Typewriting & Stenography, Spanish II
Vocational Work or Home Economics (1 credit)

Vocational work in this curriculum begins in the second year in the form of vocational survey. The idea of this survey course is to guide the student in the discovery of his vocational interest and aptitude through actual contact with the different vocations. This, of course, requires able teachers and adequate facilities. It is in this period that the teacher must consider the child and his needs uppermost, rather than the subject he teaches. Vocational guidance, therefore, must be made an integral part of all instruction in this curriculum. In the academic classes, as well as in the vocational activities, the guidance responsibility of the

teacher should always be kept before him. He should remember that the ultimate objective of education is the discovery and development of one's usefulness to himself and to his fellowmen. Since one's discovery of the best that there is in him, the teacher should guide his student to realize that his real objective in his studies is the discovery and development of his potentialities. The vocational survey, followed by two years' training in a chosen vocation, aims to help the child realize this objective.

The vocations that are treated in this survey work and training are horticulture, poultry and swine raising, retail merchandising, and agronomy for boys and girls; automotive, general metal work, and woodworking for boys; and home economics for girls. The boys are permitted to enrol in six of these courses. The study of each course during the survey period lasts for six weeks. This study centres on the nature and characteristics of the activity in the vocation, its advantages and disadvantages, qualifications and training required, remuneration or reward, and future of the vocation. More intensive guidance is given each student during the last four weeks of the school year. Before the end of this guidance period, the student decides with the help of his counsellor the vocation that he intends to study intensively in the following year. The emphasis in the third and fourth years' work is on training. Whenever advisable, the student may change his vocation in the fourth year, otherwise he is expected to continue his training in the same vocation. What is done with the boys is also done with the girls, except that instead of six courses they take only four, in order to give one semester's time to home economics. This is in the second year. In the third and fourth years the procedure is the same as that for the boys.

Summarizing, we find the following as the most desirable features of the General Curriculum:

1. It is a well-balanced curriculum. It provides for the vocational as well as for the cultural education of the individual.
2. It provides him with a rich educational foundation

and opportunity which he may follow up beyond the high school.

3. It provides him guidance for the discovery of his vocational inclination and aptitude.

4. It provides him training in the vocation of his choice.

5. It does not compel him to take those subjects that are only indispensable to those who wish to go to college.

6. It fits nicely with the academic curriculum.

In conclusion permit me to state that when secondary education has finally reached the point of helping the individual discoverer the best that there is in him and then provides him with a training that will develop him for a life of usefulness, that secondary education cannot help but make also a valuable contribution to World Peace.

Social Science Contribution towards World Peace

Miss Olive W. Kelso

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Modern principles of education stress the fact that ideas are most forcefully implanted when the interest is created through a continual process of education. The social science teachers of our technical high school in Pasadena, California, use in the social science work a publication called the *Observer* which is issued weekly with contributions from eminent men, such as Dr. Barry, to create interest and sympathy with people of other countries. Copies of this paper are received at the school each week, and as we have five social science teachers, each teacher devotes one complete recitation period each week to discussion of current problems, domestic and foreign.

Social science is a required subject in the first year and in the senior year of the high school. The front page of the *Observer* contains two articles of approximately one thousand words. One deals with a vital issue of American life. Thirty minutes is usually devoted to the discussion of this article. The remaining half hour is used in reading the other article of foreign interest. The other pages consist of world news in very short articles which follow up long articles presented the previous week, as well as pictures and cartoons. Various methods are used in presenting this material to the classes. One especially interesting way is through the panel discussion which has been so popular in both adult and student gatherings. Our teachers believe that students can become effectively acquainted with other countries in this way. First, because a magazine of this type discusses in an authoritative and unbiased way the problems of foreign countries. Second, because it presents these materials, concisely yet comprehensively, in an interesting style adapted to secondary pupils. Third, it prevents any haphazard study of international problems by busy teachers. I have no doubt that other countries are as fortunate as ours in having a publication as effective as the one I have mentioned for teaching of this subject in an authoritative, unbiased and intelligent way, which is of most vital importance to human welfare.

On the "Hodō Kyōkai" Movement

Mr. Shin'ichiro Imaoka

Principal, Seisoku Middle School, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 482)

Second Session

High School Education in 1937

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It is very difficult for us, representing many nations as we do, to think and speak in terms of common understanding as we consider secondary education. Our conceptions are each formed in the mold of individual experience. As an illustration, few, many, or all are to be educated in the completion of public secondary school years, according to the traditions, economic feasibility, philosophies, and evaluation of human happiness and prosperity resulting from such education.

What are the objectives of secondary education? For whom do we operate schools? What social obligations are put upon the student individually and the school generally?

To the extent that any portion of the dwellers within the boundaries of a country is lifted by education, all the social strata of the population incline upward. Education enriches the body, mind, and spirit of its devotees. It lifts the eyes unto the hills, and from them comes inspiration, as you in Japan are stimulated by the sublime grandeur and majesty of Mount Fuji.

Education will take the child, youth, or adult who worships at its shrine from the place he is to the place he should go in his mental life and social possibilities. A school is simply an institution that offers such opportunities. If it is a public school, it must give hope to all of the land according to their respective abilities, inspirations, desires, and energies. As the individual molds himself through the educa-

tional activities he practises, so the nation is formed from the results of the many learning processes. A school enables the individual and the nation to prepare for better service and more significant living.

The greatest object of any tax-supported school is the production of better citizens than otherwise would result. If our public schools fail here, our vaunted boast of free education is challenged seriously. But so long as the schools remember that an enlightened citizenry is the true wealth of nations, education cannot fail.

In America we have long believed that religion, morality, and knowledge are essential to good government and the happiness of mankind; and therefore, public schools have spread their influences in ever widening circles in the march of America from the wilderness to world power. But it is not in a narrow sense in which we conceive citizenship. On a little globe only 8,000 miles in diameter and with all the twentieth-century means of contacts among peoples, there is no foreigner, and no self-sufficiency. A national and an international solidarity of citizenship is desirable.

Progress is in the hands of youth. If one's dream is too big for himself, let him tell it to the children in the home and in the school and they will make it come true. Young people are much alike the world around. In Tokyo, Shanghai, Berlin, or San Francisco, they look much alike and dress much alike, enjoy much the same amusements, possess the same impulses and emotions, and are animated by much the same ideals of the fulfilment of life. May we not, therefore, develop in them a sense of sound nationalism and at the same time a sense of respect for the ideals, traditions, hopes, and aspirations of other people? Mutual understanding, like art and music, must surround the globe and give richness to the idea of citizenship. There is perhaps no greater objective possible for the secondary schools of the world. Our possible accomplishments in submerging narrow nationalism and creating an enlightened world viewpoint will be measured by our zeal for mutual accord and respect.

Sam Walter Foss, an American poet, wrote:

"Give me men to match my mountains,
Give me men to match my plains;
Men with empires in their purpose,
And new eras in their brains."

A finer citizenship through education is a world Fujiyama. In the schools of our homelands, let us strive to make men and women who match the mountain, who maintain purposes of peace, and who promote new eras of goodwill among men.

Secondary education is for all. Our adolescent schools are for all who can profit by them. The windows of all homes must look out upon hope. No one can set limits to the source of leadership or even genius. Schools are for all the children of all the people centred together. They shall embrace rural areas and city blocks. No class, colour, creed, or sex must be permitted to bar one from his school freedom, rights, and opportunities. Only his own limitations may bar his way and close his course. Each must be permitted to strive to survive on his highest level of attainment. "Who dreams shall live" is chiseled on one of the public buildings of Canada. All children dream of success. Through the schools they shall live.

Over the door of each public school might well be inscribed a sentiment which appears at the door of a building in Boston, dedicated to the promotion of youthful character:

"Enter, within is opportunity. Come ye men and women of tomorrow; here is an open door and you are welcome. Enter."

Some Phases of Education. Only the pupil who will study, work, and submit to discipline of body, mind, and spirit may be schooled. Education is a serious business for the one who profits by it.

Learning is a continuous process moving along quite like a stream as it carries more and more water from its source to the sea.

It means that the pupil is to be trained to think, to feel, to love, to aspire, to appreciate, to do, and to render service.

It includes something of the cultural—the good, the beautiful the true, home, civic, social, and vocational preparation, the

extent depending upon the possibilities of the individual and the length of his course.

The child is to be taught to live, to make a living, and to contribute his part to the welfare of the whole.

Education is not to enable one to escape work, but to enable him to work more efficiently. The youth must learn to do something the world wants done and to do it exceptionally well.

The road of progress is to be open to all children. Rural and urban populations together make a nation great. The one warrants our attention and will pay in social dividends as well as the other.

Above all, it means young men and women are to have a chance that they may be torch bearers in the relay race of humanity.

It presumes that the school buildings will be so excellent that they will permit the accomplishment of the ends of education and be monuments to the community and the nation which support the school.

Civilization is advanced in the manner by which one moves a pile of sand, not by pushing the mass, but shovelful by shovelful. Its progress is by way of education bit by bit. Social understandings will be consummated and economic ills will be solved by clearer and still clearer educational vision.

Citizens are the riches of a city. Education alone can cause people so to live that the compelling problems of national and world significance may be solved.

We have come to realize more clearly than before that guidance is a great factor in a pupil's progress. All need it. All teachers should realize their obligations in making men and women first and in teaching subjects afterwards.

High School Opportunities Must Be General and Diversified. One should be permitted to pursue general education in the language and literature of his country, in the history, social institution, and government of his own land intently and of the world within feasible limits, science, mathematics, and some other languages in addition to his native tongue, as long as his zeal, satisfactory accomplishments, and the finan-

cial resources supporting the pupil and the school permit. This general education may be quite the best schooling for most workers who meet only minimum school attendance laws, as well as for those who intend to pursue university courses.

In addition to this general type of education, our secondary school must offer many specialized lines for diagnostic, pre-vocational, and vocational purposes. This means that the total offerings of a large senior high school will be four or five times the programme of studies taken by a single pupil and that election of courses is expected. These special offerings include fine arts, household arts, industrial arts, mechanical drawing, music, varied commercial branches, and health and physical education.

It is believed by the writer that a pupil wishing to enter industrial and commercial fields at the end of his secondary course might well be permitted to work in the actual store, office, or factory a half day each day for pay while attending school the other half day, and be graduated in the same number of years as one who attends school all day without employment.

Schools must be equipped with libraries, laboratories, gymnasiums, play fields, auditoriums, shops, music and art rooms—all with modern apparatus and supplies to make their use efficient.

Pupils are to come into contact with the experiences of the races of men in the varied phases of human progress. This means that books in which such experiences are recorded are of the utmost importance. More and more books of diversified content and those adjusted to the individual differences which are as marked as finger prints are needed.

The greatest problem in secondary education, granting the establishment of schools for all the people is feasible, is the adjustment of the school programme to all the varied abilities of the pupils so that each may succeed on his level.

Teach Our Youth to Work. Our youth must learn to work and be given a chance to work. All worth-while work is educative. One cannot be truly educated who has not learned

to do some common types of occupations in the way the world wants them done, accomplishing such things in competition with others under normal working conditions. Work should be begun early, perhaps simple work then. The youth should grow in his ability to do more difficult and skilful work as he advances in years. The writer differs from those who believe that formal schooling for all is to be continued beyond eighteen years of age. It is rather his belief that a young man entering the industrial world in the capacity of a future artisan or labourer should be at his real occupation as a beginner by eighteen years of age. The same statement is supported for a young man entering the lower-pay positions in the commercial world.

Nations differ greatly in the employment of girls and women. In America, we believe any woman shall work if she cares to do so. Therefore, my statements just made about the age of employment of a young man in lower-pay brackets fit also the employment of a young woman.

It is further believed by the writer that if young people doing the humbler work of the world begin in earnest at about eighteen years of age, they should be ready to marry in the early twenties with some assurance of the family's economic success, because the husband has learned to do something well, or even uncommonly well, in his four, or five, or six years of practice since he was eighteen years of age.

Youth must be given its chance. Whatever social adjustments are necessary to promote old-age security and at the same time provide work for youth must be completed. Boys and girls are the greatest resources of a nation. Their spirit, zeal, ambition, and energy must be capitalized and be given free play. "A nation which does not do all that is feasible to give youth its opportunity is untrue to its own trust and its own destiny."

Vocational Education For many years the drift in industrial nations has been toward great factories in which fewer and fewer persons of more and more highly technical ability determine the processes, and the great mass of employees do relatively simple activities, most of which may be learned

in a period from a few hours to a few months.

The number of vocations in a modern industrial and commercial society is legion. Schools can do little to meet more than a few of them at best.

It is the belief of the writer that the great range of world activities must be learned on the job itself under regular productive conditions and with regular shop equipment.

A factory exists for profit. A school exists for service. The school may do much in a vocational way to teach related knowledge, skill, and dexterity which the factory has not time or facilities to accomplish.

The writer has been speaking of the positions which carry the smaller returns in wages. The higher returns will be paid generally to those of the most efficient training in colleges of engineering and technical schools of university and post-university grade.

Secondary Schools and Vocational Education. Schools comparable to the junior high school, usually the seventh, eighth, and ninth school grades, the senior high school, usually the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, and junior college, usually the thirteenth and fourteenth grades in America, may do much in prevocational and vocational education.

The junior high school has its varied curricula including art, music, foreign languages, science foods, clothing, several types of shops, mechanical drawing, commercial courses, and physical education, in addition to the usual academic lines. By a certain freedom of election, a pupil may make his programme according to his own and his parents' choices. The junior high school is, however, primarily a diagnostic period so far as any vocational preparation is concerned.

The courses in senior high school are comparable to those in junior high school in type, but more varied and with a greater freedom of election by the pupil and a more intensive treatment. Commercial branches, fine arts, household arts, industrial arts, music, physical education, and academic fields are all to a more or less degree vocational depending upon the particular use and the special interest of the learner. Commercial courses in American high schools are probably

most truly vocational among secondary school subjects in the literal meaning of the word. All courses are diagnostic and directive.

The junior colleges due to the age of its pupils may be strongly vocational for many of its students. It is certainly vocational for those who are going into advanced fields of learning. On the industrial and commercial sides it may well prepare many workers for intermediate positions in commerce and industry.

The Teachers. In the final analysis everything concerned with the efficiency of a school is measured in terms of teachers. They must be adequately prepared to instruct in the field in which they teach. Good teachers make a good school, poor teachers set at naught all other efforts to promote instruction.

It is enough if an instructor knows how to teach one to three fields of secondary school work thoroughly. One cannot expect more. Scattering lowers accomplishment. If a teacher can be kept in one field only, higher learning achievements will result.

The common requirement for secondary school teaching in America is the Bachelor of Arts degree. Several states require more.

If we are to have efficient schools we must first have efficient teachers. No other factor approaches this one in importance in a school.

That it is necessary for a teacher to love children and love his work needs no comment. But beyond that, teaching is a business occupation. The professional status must be so stable in tenure, retirement allowance, and yearly salary as to attract the best ability of the nation to it. The position of the teacher must be dignified by living standards of fine respectability.

Health and Physical Education. Life at its best demands a strong mind in a strong body.

The German youth of today exemplifies the value and effect of physical training in the finest way. One is forced to admire the stalwart qualities and the excellent appearance

of the youth of secondary school age there. A national consciousness on the physical side explains the winning of the Olympics by that nation last summer.

The victories of peace depend on health, sanitation, and good physical tone. All young people should build the finest bodily machine possible.

In California and in other States of America, a pupil in grades nine to twelve inclusive must spend not less than forty minutes each school day in the field of health and physical education.

Bonds of Peace and Friendship. As the *Taiyo Maru* left San Francisco bringing some of us to this convention, streamers of variegated paper tape were thrown from friends on the boat to friends on the shore and held lovingly as the liner moved from the dock upon its journey, each tape bearing messages back and forth of "Bon voyage," "Gute Reise," safety, and love. The mesh of these papers of rainbow hues and promise was broken, but not the sentiments.

A similar display occurred as we left Honolulu, and still more recently as we left Shanghai. Yes, a lot of frivolity and colour, but deeper a fundamental meaning. Those streamers were elongated heart strings.

May we not from the illustration gain an international symbolism of heart strings across the Pacific, the Atlantic, and the others of the Seven Seas, and over lands far and near, binding us all into love and affection as nations, neighbours, and brothers, as peaceful and as beautiful as the rainbow of the heavens.

America desires that this condition shall prevail. With malice towards none and with charity for all, she would pursue the policy of the good neighbour in her relationships and intercourse among nations. Peace, harmony, respect for all, recognition of interdependence of peoples, the vital importance of human understanding, and mutual charity are her ideals of world betterment. America is striving to teach these lessons in her schools.

In one of our secondary schools of San Francisco there are children of more than forty nations working, playing,

living, and learning happily together. If youth can do this in a single institution, may we not hope for its consummation among the nations of the world?

Four Fundamentals of New Education

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Education has seen a number of eras in its development. The eras of education in different countries are ever changing according to the conditions of those countries. In our country, the new era of education has not yet been demarcated. In our country the new ideas in education were, in the beginning, imitated from the West. Even today the influence of the West can be seen in the new ideas in education in our country. We do not have any new ideal in education independently thought out in our country.

If the new education in any country is an imitation of that in another, it would prove harmful. The new ideas that are spreading in one country today are found to be beneficial and not harmful. That is because they are not blindly imitated from another country. If any experiment of education in any country is carried *mutatis mutandis* to another country, it is likely to prove unwholesome. Our country had done so before a few years ago; even today, the remains of such an imitation are to be found. Such a thoughtless imitation of the education in a foreign country proved fatal to our education. So now the thoughts of new

education in our country are no more mere imitation from other countries but are based on fundamental principles of true education. The educationist of today, instead of thinking of any rigid system, thinks of the true fundamentals of education and moulds instruction accordingly. We shall here see what lies in the foundation of new ideals in education that are recently spreading in our country. If we find that any system of education contains these fundamental truths, we must accept it as true, no matter whether such a system is born in our country or in any other. That such system has been thought out outside India is an accident. A day may come in our country also when a genius would be born who would establish a system based on the fundamental principles of life. For doing such a thing we must throw a glance at the various experiments in education, carried on in other countries.

It is not meant here to analyze any particular method of education. Every method is founded on some new principle. We shall only speak of these principles.

Individuality

The first and important fundamental of new education is the individuality of the child. Taking education to be a means of development, we can only think of the development of a child after keeping it in the centre of education. Any system which does not keep the child in the centre is not based on new principles. The education of today is different from that of yesterday because the former is paedocentric while the latter was not. Till today we have been thinking that education is something that is given; the receiver should silently accept whatever is given to him. Such an idea of education totally disregarded the personality of the child. Forgetting that the learner is going to be a man like us in the future, the teacher began to impose his beliefs on him. Though the teacher disregarded the individuality of the child, it did not die out altogether. The inevitable result of this was that the child didn't learn what the teacher taught

him. When the teacher came to know this, he began to force the child to learn. This pressure consisted in the fetters of the time-table, the confinement imposed by the curriculum, the devil of examination, the fear of the teacher, and the inducements of prizes. So long as the creators of new education did not open the eyes of the teachers, this repression continued. The new educationists proved the futility of these methods and definitely showed that success can be got, not by repressing the child, but by thinking of and respecting its individuality and creating means necessary for developing that individuality. Today it has been proved by various experiments that if education is not made *paedocentric* it will fail. The various experiments that are conducted today keep the child in the centre. Take any system of education or any method of instruction. You will find that of the many peculiarities of such a system of method, one is that it keeps the object in the centre. Old methods kept the teachers or the subjects or the society in the centre. In the new education, the child occupies the centre and the other things are arranged round this nucleus. This is the great fundamental of new education. Any system of new education in any country must give heed to this principle. A system constructed on the foundation of this fundamental is essentially different from old education. Just as in order that a tree may grow well, proper atmosphere is created round it. As soon as education is made *paedocentric*, the viewpoint of the teacher and the method of the syllabus at once change. The motives which lay behind education when it did not keep the child in the centre cannot exist in the system of education that is *paedocentric*. That education must be accepted as new which keeps the child in the centre. No matter in which country such a system may have been born—ours or not—it must be universally accepted.

Freedom

Another great fundamental principle of education is "Freedom." The idea of freedom may have come to India

from another country, but it cannot be said to have been born in any particular country. There is no human soul on the surface of the earth who is not craving for freedom. During the last two or three centuries this thirst for freedom has grown so violent that we see serious attempts being made to quench this thirst in all parts of the world. All human beings in the world are eager to get freedom in matters economical, social, religious and political. The obstruction caused by one man in freedom of another created civil wars. The nations coming in way of another nation gave rise to terrible wars; the check on their subjects' freedom imposed by rulers caused rebellions in the empires. Thus we can see man carrying on death struggles for acquiring freedom on all sides. No man is any longer ready to be a slave of another. All these attempts for freedom may not be pure in every way; but the eagerness for getting freedom has risen to such a pitch that anyone who comments upon the legitimacy of the means of getting freedom is considered an enemy of freedom. Society and State have been in chaos. Man thinks that perfect freedom is the only means of salvation.

During the last two or three decades the idea of freedom had been gaining strength in the field of education. The education which man had been receiving from his birth was such as strengthened his bondage. The first rebellion against bondage was, for the first time, declared in the field of education. People who have realized education which nourished slavery can never think of freedom in any other sphere of life—this thought occurred to the thinkers in new education. So they revolted against old education and clamoured for the creation of new education. When the clamour for freedom was first raised, the conception of freedom was not so clean and sound as it is today. Whatever may happen to the various branches of instruction, the new educationists wanted to give freedom to students. The inventions of new means of utilizing freedom in other works is a later idea. The first idea was of freedom and nothing but freedom. They did not care if the sphere of the child's

freedom was limited. The new educationists at first caught sight of schools and they decided to free students from the physical and intellectual slavery which they were undergoing. The enforcement of the principles of freedom is seen to begin with the freedom of body. The child was allowed freedom from the checks on its movements and posture. The student was freed from the fear of corporal punishment. This new field of freedom was limited to schools and to the body of the child. This limitation did not pinch the new educationists. They knew that even if the beginning was made with physical freedom and in the limited field of the school, it would lead to all sorts of freedom, physical as well as spiritual, in all the spheres of the child's life; and we actually see this new era in the field of new education. The limiting wall of the student's freedom has removed farther away from around the school, and freedom has pervaded physical as well as spiritual spheres. The physical freedom granted to the child in the school extended farther so that today the student can think of his own freedom; moreover, he can also think how best to utilize his freedom in useful activities. Today we can see that schools which can merely allow bodily freedom are not easily accepted as free schools. In a really modern school the student is allowed not bodily freedom alone but intellectual and mental freedom, too. Modern education has kept in view the future free life of the child and for allowing its body, mind, heart, intellect, etc. to develop freely. It has not even stopped at that; scientific efforts have been made so that the free activities of the child may ensure a healthy development of its body, mind and heart. The element of new education permeates in each and every school, so to say.

As the new idea of education gained ground day by day, its fundamental principles began to permeate other walks of life. The principle of freedom also spread out of the school. The educationist at first tried it in the school, instead of applying it to the rest of the child's daily life. If the state of things outside the school in nineteen hours of home life were such that all the advantages obtained by the

student in enjoying perfect freedom for five hours in the school were washed off, it would be a sorry plight for him. Moreover, enjoyment of freedom for five hours would naturally engender a craving in the child for getting it for the rest of his time. The new educationists were sure that once this hankering for freedom was born in the mind of the child, it would surely attempt to get freedom in other spheres of life. And verily, the student asked for freedom outside the school. The idea began to spread that the freedom that the child enjoyed inside the school must also be allowed to him outside it. Taking advantage of this, the educationists reached the homes of the students and also went to the other places where the students passed their leisure time. Gradually the idea of freedom strongly influenced the home, the boarding house, the playground, etc. The learner hankered after freedom of body, mind and heart for all the 24 hours. It was made to understand that just as the teacher was no more able to enslave the child in the school, so no limitation on the child's bodily freedom in the home, the boarding house or any other place will be brooked. Those who were not teachers yet were interested in the education and this demand was forcefully made. The death knell of the strict rules of the home began to be heard. The doctrine that the child should learn certain subjects in a certain way began to disappear from the school and from other places. The furniture and its arrangement in school, as well as in the house, were reconstructed. The discipline from parents, housemaster or elders on the child began to grow less just as the fetters of the timetable and discipline on the child were broken in the school.

This doctrine of freedom started from the school and reached the society. Workers in other professions clamoured for freedom. The depressed and the backward classes were ashamed to be considered as depressed or backward. Backward classes, women, and others demanded freedom. Thus the new educationists at first granted this new principle in the school, and later on it spread out everywhere. Today we see that so long as a man or an institution does not get physical and spiritual freedom, he or it is never at rest.

This fundamental of education has been so universal nowadays that it need not be mentioned as a new truth. A place where there is no bodily, intellectual or mental freedom is not fit to live in. Educational institutions are meant to teach the children to develop themselves and lead a better life. Of such institutions freedom must be the soul. The times are such that we are ashamed to recognize any institution devoid of freedom as an educational institution.

Creative Activities

The third fundamental or new education is the provision for "Creative Activities." Looking at old education we find that in that system there was the least room for creative activities—or it might even be said there was no room. Before the advent of foreign influence on our education, the old education of our country had left considerable room for creative activities. Intellect had not occupied so great a place in those days; and what little development the intellect made, it inspired man to create something with the use of his brain and hands. Western winds blew on our country and then academic subjects were given prominence. That led to the ceasing of all free creations inspired by the intellect and prepared by the hands. Men began to think that the more his intellect alone was developed the more educated he would be considered. The methods of teaching academic subjects were also so inapt that the intellect itself had no opportunity to make its own free development. The belief that every system of education must provide for creative activities was lost sight of by people. Thus foreign academic education is to blame for misguiding our national life. If the academic subjects had been selected and taught thoughtfully, we could have seen creations of the intellect. But in our country even the intellect began to be dependent. It was habituated to eat food chewed by others and so forgot its

own unborn ability for creations. Creative activities found definite place in the new education for this reason. The organizers of new education at first restricted these creative activities simply to the intellect. It was accepted that students should not only sharpen their intellect in the school but should make use of that edge in making some new creations. In practice this principle was applied to the art of drawing and painting. The new educationist saw that a student who was developing his intellect alone could easily respond to activities which provided room for the play of imagination. Such creations are possible to the greatest extent in the art of drawing and painting. From the day the new education assigned a place to creative activities in education, artistic creations were considered to be the result of education. Such is the joy of creation that man is eager to go from one sort of activity to another. When once creative activities find a place they go on spreading farther and wider. Today, in education, creative activities are no longer limited to the intellect and the imagination, but they have gone on to the production of things which are produced with the help of the hands and feet, and which are useful in daily life. Institutions of new education are not satisfied with producing great artists. Today ample room is left for the student to indulge in creative activities of all sorts. This new education is to be congratulated for giving chances to the learner to indulge himself in many activities through the subjects of his liking. Institutions which, in addition to painting, provide for handicrafts which exercise the intellect and the hands, are truly the institutions of new education. Schools wanting in means for creative activities were, in reality, never considered educational institutions. But a kind of false ideology entered the field of education and deprived it of creative activities. This principle of free creative activities was reintroduced in the guise of a new doctrine in order to bring education on the right path. It may have come from any country to our country; but it is in fact a well-known old principle for us. At one age it was woven into the life of our country. In order to revive this idea which

had been destroyed, it was necessary to bring it into the forefront. A life without some creative element was not considered worth its name. The home and the school were never considered so much apart from each other that the one was supposed exclusively to exercise the hands and the other exclusively to train the head. The intellect never could develop without the help of the hands, nor could the hands make any progress without the help of the intellect. This was the natural state of things before the whole structure was corrupted. It is not very good for a nation that it should use an old principle as a new one in order to bring back to life the things that are extinct. But such was the state of things in our country as well as in many others. That is why today the principle of creative activities has to be put forward as a new element in education. In so far as we had totally forgotten it, it is new. If it is fully accepted and acted upon, human life would be homogeneous; the different water tight divisions in the education of man would disappear, and human development would proceed along one universal line. If we properly understand and respond to this principle, the whole face of the educational institutions would change. Today we are content with providing one or two opportunities to the student for creative activities. A school which teaches seven or eight academic subjects rests satisfied with a little arrangement for teaching drawing or a small handicraft. As a beginning it is satisfactory; but we should not stop at the beginning. There should be no academic subject which does not create opportunities for free creations; nor should any creative activity be such as does not necessitate the use of the intellect. This means that in a modern school the teaching of subjects should be so designed that neither the teacher nor the child can possibly raise any distinctions between subjects leading to creative activities and those which are purely academic.

This field of creative activities spreads further from the school. This principle found its way into any place which was connected with the education of the children, whether it was the home or the gymnasium. Creation is instinctive

in man. If man does not get sufficient scope for satisfying this instinctive need, many of his abilities are perverted. Humanity had long since realized this fact. Every sphere of life must have room for creative activities. Man can progress by getting joy from creation. Everyone, be he educated or not, be he rich or poor, has the right to have the joy of creation. At some unfortunate juncture the epidemic of wrong education spread over the world and stopped man from getting the pleasures of creation. Ceasing all the creative activities, man held the belief that creation is a low activity and this caused sterility of the intellect and the heart. Man was, curiously enough, proud of such sterility. The well-wishers of humanity foresaw the destruction of the human race in this pride; they thought it their duty to turn humanity back from this brink of destruction and revive the sense of the pleasure of creation in humanity. So the room for creative activities was insisted upon not only in the school but in all walks of life. This advocacy for creative work began with equal force in all countries and places. This advocacy is the new principle of education. Today it seems that this principle will be much more universal than all others. Every convenience is given for free creative activities. Man is awakened to the pleasures of creative work. These activities can be pursued by old and young, rich and poor, male and female alike. There are various sorts of creative activities. Man got the opportunity to select any sort of creative activities that he found suitable.

In order that such creative activities may be purer, more helpful and instrumental in the evolution of man, definite fields for such activities have been chalked out by experiments. Teaching institutions have been selected for conducting such experiments. Society accepts the standard of creative activities which has been laid down in such institutions. For carrying on such experiments about such creations no particular country can have any special privilege. Every nation would accept the criterion for scientific creative activities arrived at by any scientist in any country by conducting such experiments. Till yesterday the child took

the pleasure of creation by playing with filth and mud; today new education has led it to purer forms of activities. For that reason the new method cannot be confined to any particular country or clime or time. What is true in the case of the child is equally true in the case of the men of any and every age. That which can be applied to a student learning in a school can with equal validity be applied to any human being learning all sorts of things in the great school of the world. Viewed thus, this principle of new education is inevitable for the development of life, and for that reason it becomes all the more universal.

Relations with Society

The fourth great fundamental of new education is the relation with society. The three fundamental principles which we discussed, depend largely for success on this fourth fundamental. Individuality, freedom, and creation are as much social as they are personal to a man. When we talk of individuality or freedom, we can only do so relatively. The pleasure of creation can be fully enjoyed by the creator only when there is some one else to participate in that joy. The individuality of a person that segregates himself completely from society is no individuality. Freedom which is to be enjoyed in a solitary place, far away from society, is useless. And creations which are lying hidden from any influence by society are not worth being called creations. Thus the individuality and the freedom of a man exist as relative to society; and the creation made by man is of the society and for the society. A man possessing individuality does not use it against himself; he can only realize the existence and power of his individuality by living in society. A man enjoying freedom is free within the four walls of his room. Artists can get their creations appreciated and evaluated only by displaying them in society. Thus the great principles of the education of man, which we enumerated and explained above, depend for the test of that truth on their relations to society. The individuality of a man must be taken to

have failed if, while trying to preserve it, he comes into conflict with society. Society cannot brook such misfitting individuality for long. Such an individuality has either to be wiped off or has to modify itself so as to fit society. Where the doctrine of individuality first appeared in the field of education, the idea of sociability did lurk behind it. In the beginning—well, for the sake of argument—too much stress was laid on individualism, and sociability held a red lamp before it. In order to live in society, an individual has to sacrifice much; then only society becomes willing to sacrifice as much as is necessary for the sake of the individual. The success of individualism depends on the generosity of society, while the success of society depends on the acceptance of individuality. If the individual remains apart from society, he injures both himself and society. If society tries to repress the individual without recognizing him, it would in the long run weaken itself. Thus the development of individuality depends on the acceptance of society and the development of society depends on its respecting individuality. The new education has accepted the principle of individuality only on this understanding. If this principle of individuality is applied in an absolute way without regard to this understanding, new education would, to that extent, fail.

The idea of freedom is also bound up with society. Man can only think of his freedom in relation to society. The bondage from which man tries to get free has been imposed on him by others. So long as a man is not free from an outside yoke, he cannot obtain freedom from the fetters of his own passions. The idea and practice of freedom begin with society; for that very reason it depends, for its success, on society. Think of the four walls of a school or of any broad field of liberal education; the individual studying there is striving for freedom with the purpose of getting free from some outside control. A person wishing for bodily freedom in the school and a person wishing for spiritual freedom in the world both make their attempts for freedom in a relative sense. So long as he does not get free from outside bondage, he does not consider himself free. Such a freedom depends

on the relation with society in another way. A man whose freedom is obstructive and not helpful to others is not free in the right sense. One who thinks of his own freedom alone is, to speak the truth, really not free. That freedom is real freedom which considers the freedom of others. From this point of view, too, freedom cannot be accomplished without the help of society. People wishing to obtain freedom do so in the midst of society; to that extent they are the part and parcel of society. Just as one limb of the body cannot develop by disregarding or forgetting other limbs, so a man trying to get freedom cannot do so by keeping others enslaved. Thus the principle of the relation with society is quite necessary in new education.

Creative activities are equally related to society. If any creation of man is not for society, it is useless. The progress of society is due to the creations of man for the sake of society. Even if we grant that the individual himself enjoys his creation—that it is for himself, and that it is made for its own sake—even then, the social value of that creation does not diminish at all. Even after creating a thing for its own and his own sake, man cannot but put it away from society. Knowingly or unknowingly, he evaluates his creation according to the standard of society. His progress stops if he fails in the taste of society. Man is by nature a social animal. It is impossible to imagine any creation of his as not related to society. It is impossible for a man who moves in society—depending on and nourished by society, measuring his abilities by the standards of society—to call his creations anti-social. Every activity of man is intimately bound up with society. If we go deeper, we find that an individual enjoys his creation, viewing it with the eye of society. These creative activities are joined with social elements. Thinking from the moral or spiritual point of view, that creation which does not regard society or is indifferent to it, is not fit to exist as a creation. The creation of no individual is solely his own; there is always the influence of society on the work of the individual, and his creation is in many ways coloured by society. Thus it is necessary to recognize the principle

of relation with society as a universal principle of education.

We saw that the fundamental principle of the relation with society is not by itself a principle; but it exists as related to other principles. The reason of its acceptance in new education is that, if it is not accepted, neither the individual nor the society can achieve true progress.

In thinking of new education, the consideration of these four principles is necessary and indispensable. New education has considered many other principles; but they can all be included in these four. Any teacher interested in the new education can independently think of other such principles.

Tradition and Adventure in Education

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It is with an apology that I must begin today. This paper was written for the meeting of the N.E.A. and I had no idea that I was to speak here until the programme was handed to me as the Conference began. If I had only known earlier, it would have been a great pleasure to study the history of Japanese education which contains in itself in such a marked degree both elements of Tradition and Adventure. Since landing I have been thrilled by reading *The Tale of Genji* written in the early part of the eleventh century by Lady Murasaki, who snatched her education from that given to her brother. As was said last night by Count Kabayama, one of Japan's outstanding characteristics is her susceptibility to outside influences. First, she absorbed the ancient learning of China, then with avidity the teaching of the West, and now, since the Manchoukuo incident, she has

turned again to China to learn her language and customs for other reasons. Bertrand Russell writes "The modern Japanese nation is unique, not only in this age but in the history of the world. It combines elements which most Europeans would have supposed to be totally incompatible, and it has realized an original plan to a degree hardly known in human affairs. The Japan which now exists is almost exactly that which was intended by the leaders of the Restoration in 1867." I repeat my regret that I have been given no time in which to study the fascinating history of this land.

Secondly, in connection with what the last speaker has said, may I say that American education seems to us as one of the greatest adventures in the world, involving as it does the grappling with a splendid courage—the stupendous task of producing an educated nation out of an enormous polyglot population with but short traditions, and out of that struggle have arisen and are arising American scholars who are second to none.

Tradition and Adventure—they are not of course opposed but complementary, one to the other. There can be no adventure starting from nothing, even if it takes the form of breaking away from all tradition from which to break away. Adventure surely means finding a new use of a new field for what already lies at hand, as discovery means the unveiling of places, powers, and forces which were already in existence. The adventure of one age becomes the tradition of the next. Here may I say that it seems a pity to force or push tradition; it is so noble, generous and kindly; it is the voluntary handing on by one age of the design, tools, and equipment with which it has built to the new generation, that it may in its turn build still more nobly. I have seen in the United States notices that certain customs are to be future tradition but it must be a voluntary handing on, not forced or pushed on by order.

In this matter we have of course extremists, on the one hand, those who cry "Hands off" any tradition, however useless, obsolete, silly or hampering it may become. On the

other, we have those who regard as "suspect" anything older than their own generation and like the Irishman are inclined to wave it away with the motto "Reform forever!"

The heroine in a modern novel is made to say, "Custom is a paralysis; authority a dead hand," but it has been wisely said, "Tradition is not always a chain, it may be a life-line."

If you do not already know it, I should like to introduce you to Cyril Norwood's *The English Tradition in Education* published in 1929. It ends with a chapter upon the service of education to democracy entitled "Europe or America—or is it Europe and America?"

Tradition—May I first very briefly refer to the beginnings of some of our old schools in England, which, founded by adventurers, have become some of our greatest traditions.

Westminster, though it is the only one of our public schools of whose date we are not sure, is generally accepted as our oldest school. Some put the date at 1339, but there is a Latin book of rules for thirteenth century school boys which almost certainly refers to Westminster boys. They must rise early, make their beds, say their prayers, perform their very inadequate ablutions. Then they must proceed to church with orderly steps; they must not run, jump, chatter or play tricks on the way. They must fix their eyes on the Altar and not laugh if any priest sings badly.

There is to be no sparing of the rod for any language stronger than 'certainly,' 'truly,' 'I tell you,' or 'Heaven may help.' The most famous traditions of Westminster are first, the right, so recently exercised, of acclaiming as representatives of the common people by the forty poor scholars of the newly Crowned King. As his procession passed up the aisle the anthem "I was glad when they said unto me, we will go into the house of the Lord" was interrupted at this point by the cries of the scholars: "Vivat Georgius Rex! Vivat! Vivat! Vivat! Vivat Elizabetha Regina! Vivat! Vivat! Vivat!"

Secondly, there is the "Pancake Grease." Its origin is hidden in antiquity. In the old hall the upper school is

divided from the lower by a high iron bar. Over this, on Shrove Tuesday, the cook tosses the pancake, a scramble ensues, and the grabber of the largest piece gets a guinea.

Thirdly, there is the Latin Play which so delighted Queen Elizabeth in 1563 that she gave the actors twenty-five marks. This play is still given annually and in two ways is in itself an example of tradition and adventure. It is played in the old English pronunciation while the continental is taught in the school; and, to the classical play is added a Latin prologue and epilogue by masters and boys containing witty allusions to events of the day.

Winchester was the next great school to be founded, with New College, Oxford, by William of Wykeham with its famous motto, of which we must often think in your country of Japan, "Manners Maketh Man." Hanging in the school hall is the grim motto of later date "Learn or depart: there remains a third course to be beaten." Winchester's peculiar traditions are "notions"—the boys are men, the men have toys (i.e., corners of the big school room where they have their desk, chair, books, photographs). Their school desks are scobs, from scobellus, a cleric's seat; cloister-time means study; continent means ill and confined to sick room, when a man recovers and emerges, he is said to come abroad. Trenchers were used for all meals, one side for meat and the other for pudding; now they are used only for breakfast and tea. The numbers remain the same at Winchester—seventy scholars and four hundred others.

Eton is nearly three times the size and was founded with Magdalen College, Oxford, in 439 by Henry VI. There is no time to speak of its traditions or of those of the later foundations of Rugby in 1567 and Harrow 1571. The first day school was the City of London in 1447.

St. Paul's School was founded by the saintly Dean Colet, who asked that the 153 boys might hold up their little hands in prayer for him. This foundation is especially germane to my subject, for from this traditional foundation, the funds of which were in the hands of the Mercer's Company, sprang the adventure of St. Paul's Girls' School only thirty-five

years ago When I told the "High" Mistress of my subject for the N.E.A. Convention, she wrote to me "It is, I think, the help of those 400 years of tradition that has done more than anything else to give the school its power for usefulness and service in a changing world. We have never felt hampered by this tradition, but it has given a setting of dignity and responsibility which has made adventure a thing on which we could set out with confidence."

The oldest girls' school in the country is Christ's Hospital, founded at the same time as the boys ("Blue Coat") school. At the present time the tradition that has interested us most is that ever since the time of Mary Tudor, it has been the privilege extended to the "Religious and Ancient Foundation of Christ's Hospital to offer humble and loyal greetings on the occasion of their Sovereign's first visit to his capital city." The School is now in the county of Herfordshire, but on May 24th, 1937, a deputation of the Vice-Chairman of the Council, the Head Master, the Head Mistress, six boys and six girls presented, with due form and ceremony, a loyal address to the King on the Steps of St. Paul's before he entered for the Thanksgiving Service.

I have time to mention only one more ancient girls' school—the Grey Coat Hospital, founded in 1699 for the poor children of Westminster. Each was to receive on admission a knitted cap, a pair of shoes with buckles, a pair of knitted gloves and neck bands. On the Foundation Day, January 6th, the Feast of the Epiphany, it is startling to read in the minute book that the children went to dinner at "Hell" in the Palace Yard. This was nothing more terrible than a coffee house near Westminster Hall, given its name by a rival near the Abbey called "Heaven."

Strange gifts are recorded in the minute book:—a gentlewoman sent anonymously 67 lbs. of mutton and 15 lbs. of veal; one rogation day the Churchwardens sent 119 lbs. of roasting beef and six shillings to buy strong drink; Mr Lowe, the Treasurer, was pleased to present the Hospital with one hundred stitched books. "Intituled Prayers for the Ignorant" to be given to the children.

It is of course impossible in this paper to trace from these and other ancient foundations the development of English modern education which owes so much to the piety, generosity and adventure of these founders of the thirteenth, fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries.

May we now consider what we mean by education to-day—there seem to be two alternative views. Are we to begin with local and temporal circumstances of our day and say, "To meet these special conditions, education must be such and such," or can we begin by saying, "Men and women need, as an equipment, to have this and this power developed in them by education, wherewith to live their lives to the fullest and to cope with the particular and temporal conditions of their day." Education is surely a release of power from within, rather than an imposition of facts from without. Do we share the faith of Plato, who, speaking of the problems of his own day, said, "If by a good education they be made reasonable men, they will readily see through all these problems." After all, as Aristotle suggests, the result of education is just a "sort of educatedness," and its whole purpose is to make differences in people that through their impact on the world of today they may make something better of the world of tomorrow.

Norwood traces the tradition of English schools to the five ideals of Religion, Discipline, Culture, Athletics and Service. Speaking of the evils in the schools of a hundred years ago, he shows how three pioneers overthrew these evil traditions—Arnold at Rugby, who called his Sixth Form to his side; Thring at Uppingham, who believed in civilizing the boys by placing them in civilized surroundings, and Edward Bowen of Harrow, who entirely changed the relationships between boys and masters.

With regard to games, I suppose we all, whether English or American, deplore the publicity, the professionalism, the absurd over-emphasis on games. We are spoiling them by worshipping as an "end" that which should be only a "means." Norwood points out that the old cry was "Play the game and never mind whether you win or lose," but

that it is in danger of being converted into "Win if you can, draw if you can't, but for heaven's sake don't lose."

Let us turn from athletics to culture. What do we mean by it? It is the intellectual ideal at which the schools should aim, but an ideal must be something of which human effort must fall short. You know Browning, "A man's reach must exceed his grasp," or what's Heaven for? The tradition of all old schools was religion and the classics, and I wonder whether the present over-loaded curriculum produces better results in either character or intellectual training. However, the adventure had to be made and the foundations of the old schools were found able to bear the superstructure of a modern side and a wider curriculum. But by culture is meant the pursuit of real knowledge as power. To attain this knowledge, two things are necessary, which seem to me to be often lacking in the education of today—thoroughness and concentration. These were taught by the classics, and they can of course be taught by mathematics and science, but too often the pupils specializing in these are ignorant of their own language and are illiterate and unread.

The reaction from the old severe discipline, mental and corporal, has brought into the field many pioneers. Mme. Montessori, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Freud, the Dalton Plan, the Winnetka technique—we know how much we owe to them. But have not all these adventures been in the direction of making things easier for the pupil? And if our schools are to be "miniature copies of the world we should love to have," is not "character training" the one objective? The advance of science and the monotony of industrial life have led to a desire for excitement, and we know that in present-day amusements there is a tendency to passivity and receptivity, rather than to creative or reasoning power.

Which is better as a training for life, to try to make our young people happy by removing every difficulty, every uncongenial subject and person—life is full of difficulties and fairly thickly strewn with uncongenial people—or by showing them the joy of struggle, the satisfaction of mastery and the inward happiness that comes from a successful encounter

with hard work and difficult conditions?

It is in this matter of putting first the value of character and personality that the splendid and grave responsibility of the teacher must be realized, for, as has been said of religion, character "must be caught, not taught." For our pupils the way to the higher life is in nearly all cases opened by personal inspiration. "The boy will follow and almost blindly believe the man who lives his faith and has singleness of heart." I once asked the late Head of Winchester what he remembered of his education, and he answered at once, "One man who opened my eyes and let me see." What do you and I remember of our school days? What wealth of all that we were so conscientiously taught, have we forgotten—but our teachers never. It does not matter so much what our subjects are, as what manner of men and women we are. The longer I live, the more I believe that, it is what we are and what we think that affects our children. If from this great meeting, this body of teachers in its devotion and strength were to renew its vision and go out with a new spirit of vocation in its heart, with a clear sense of right values with the true ideals of character and of international service that you wish to kindle in the hearts of the children—that would indeed be a great adventure.

Will you forgive me if I remind you of a dream of a prophecy of the future American that I read in the *Reader's Digest* of July? The writer has spoken of his disappointment with the American of today. Saying that he is the restless transmitter of all the faults of all the peoples on the earth, but goes on, "I cannot but believe he will be an extraordinary person, that pure American, perhaps a thousand years hence. He will have what no other human being has had in just the same richness—the inheritance of all ages, of all races, all cultures. He will have a fine direct eagerness which will be our restlessness refined by centuries but, concentrated too, into a driving force which will be our restlessness refined by centuries but will carry him to the heights of human knowledge." A splendid picture, which thrilled me—but you will remember, won't you, that it describes the American of

and in years hence. In the meantime, for our amusement and education it is perhaps well to read again Douglas W. Grant's *Flute's American Republic* to see that this grand plan is not yet come to pass.

Many feel troubled today at the lack of discipline, or culture or initiative in the rising generation. Can we wonder that Japan looks askance at higher education for all women, fearing that the price to be paid for it will be the loss of the beautiful courtesy and leisurely politeness, the poise and culture taught by her flower arrangement and tea ceremony which are such beautiful characteristics of her women? It was most truly said last night that Japan's priceless tradition is her national and racial spirit. We may well ponder on our education when we think of the crowds at cup-ries, baseball matches, betting on greyhounds, the delight in unwholesome motion pictures. We must, however, have faith and realize that in spite of all their tradition and adventure neither England, nor America nor Japan, nor any other country is really educated yet, but we are on the way. In America and Japan, you have a grand democratic system in which every boy and girl has an equality of opportunity, but it is well to realize sometimes that, as Fosdick says, "Democracy levels up our worst but often levels down our best." We must aim at real freedom to be artists in our work, and to produce the very best and highest of which each individual is capable, and to produce it in our own way, and that is not possible while the proportion of pupils to teachers is so high.

When we are troubled by this lack of discipline, culture and initiative, let us remember that each generation tends to exaggerate the faults of the next. Two things are needed from us, "Sympathy, and never Condemnation and growth in ourselves." "The young men shall see visions and the old men shall dream dreams"—yes, but the ideal is that the young and the old shall together dream dreams of all that is good and beautiful in the past and absorb it, and together see visions of all the glorious possibilities of the future. Do you remember Cicero's words—"As I like a young man in

whom there is something of the old, so do I like an old man in whom there is something of the young." Let us look rather at the gains than at the losses, at the good points rather than the bad in the young people of today—the delightful combination of independence, tolerance and response.

May I end with some words of William Watson that seem to contain these two ideas of tradition and adventure that I have so disjointedly and inadequately tried to suggest :

"Guests of the ages! at tomorrow's door
"Why shrink ye? The long track lies behind,
"The lamps gleam and the music throbs before,
"Bidding us enter; and I count him wise
"Who loves so well man's noble memories,
"He needs must love man's nobler hopes the more."

Freedom in Education

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I propose to discuss in this paper the new movement in education which believes in giving the students a perfect *carte blanche*. Of course, I shall confine my observations to India to which country I have the honour to belong. I think it was our national poet, Tagore, who first spoke of a *laissez-faire* in education. Those of you who have read his "Reminiscences" must be acquainted with the history of his boyhood and early youth when he was struggling to free himself from the yoke of his school teachers.

It will perhaps not be wrong to say that the rigours of a school life which was too much for his delicate nature to withstand must have inspired him most of all in his attempt

to establish that temple of liberty in learning which his University at Santiniketan represents.

Tagore is much too hard on a system of education which would put the boy in a stuffy atmosphere and would make him swallow things he does not relish, thus robbing him finally of the joys of life and crippling his development along a normal channel.

Having discovered his own self in the spontaneity of his being, he wants to make of his boys normal creatures reacting to the forces and impressions round about them.

In his University at Santiniketan, he has therefore sought to evolve an atmosphere that only belonged to the old Ashrams (Student's Home during the ancient Hindu period).

Set in the midst of nature, amidst perfect peace and amity, his students live, men and women together, developing that contact with the Guru (teacher) which comes through genuine respect and understanding. Here is no system burdening the pupil's soul with a pemicanized food but a free growth under the elements. To what extent nature has been enshrined in the Viswabharati (Tagore's University of Santiniketan) will be understood by the fact that here changing seasons have been the subject of regular festivals.

The advent of rains is solemnized in a manner displaying the highest aesthetics. In a country which is pastoral to an eminent degree, the rains are a factor of great importance. The poet's vision has given to what is otherwise an elemental occurrence a feature universally beautifying, and has thus set hearts vibrating to the joys of nature.

The poet has never displayed any desire to escape the world but has always been insistent that there should be according to nature, harmony in life, rhythm and unison.

It was natural, therefore, that his message should have been a message of "Peace and Good Will to Men."

The Viswabharati in embodying the best of his ideals has stressed freedom in growth and union of the diversifying elements—each man to his sphere but each with a complementary part in the whole picture.

Japan's intellectual emissaries, therefore, today visit the

Viswabharati like a friend meeting another. Italy, which has preserved in some secret souls the essential sense of the unity of being, sends her men to trade with Viswabharati in the articles of thought.

Freedom cannot be a qualified gift. It must rehabilitate the entire being or be lost. The freedom of conscience which Calvin taught did not stop with attacking the Papacy; it attacked the autocratic state also.

Once the *patrio polcstas* is given control in Education the right of private judgment no longer exists. You all know why the Austrian Universities were systematically strangled at the time of Metternich.

Bertrand Russell* has spoken of History being a platform for haranguing and propaganda. Were we not looking with the eyes of designing people, were not our ears poisoned by manufactured lies, there would have been no colour question on earth. Individuals of different races have made the best of friends, for they met on that even plane where every man is what he is, neither brown nor black, but sojourners in a land of mystery.

There is nothing strange in the fact that Tagore's University which preached man's essential freedom in education should also have preached cosmo-nationality.

One very pertinent question arises here: "To what extent can the young student be allowed to be free?"

Those who advocate the fullest freedom would say that the boy should have all possible varieties presented to him so that he can make his own choice.

Given his own choice, it is said that the student will develop in his own individual manner. The teacher's duty is said to be to lead him to the best specimens his subject has to offer so that his taste may be well cultivated.

The extremist among the advocates assume that the student needs no grinding to lead him from point to point in an upward march, but that he can guide himself. It is asserted that any attempt to make education easy for him is

* Bertrand Russell, *Education and Social Order*.

bound to react rather unfavourably on his sharpness. Bertrand Russell advocates literature being taught without a grounding in grammar, for, he says, the boy will find his grammar in the course of his sojourn in the realm of literature.

Tagore has not been a zealot to that extent. While on this subject one cannot help referring to a similar experiment that is being carried out in India by that great educationist T. L. Vaswani.

Vaswani who combines in himself the deeper understanding of a Rishi (sage) with a keen appreciation of the Westerner's respect for method, started St. Miras' High School in 1933.

The school typifies Vaswani's philosophy on education: the girls have gathered together to build up their lives on that simplicity and faith which belonged to the historical Mira.

Vaswani nourished on the sublimity of religion, gives prominence to physical culture, a thorough mental training, and control of the emotions.

Vaswani wants his students to be in the world but not of it, a truthful and austere group, dedicated to the service of humanity, unperturbed by personal feelings and considerations.

In the curriculum of the school, religion, which is by the way not denominational, is combined with a study of nature.

I shall do well not to stand between you and Vaswani, but let him tell about his system.

"I believe in the shaping power of education. The great lawgiver and prophet of ancient China said, 'If a ruler wishes to transform the people, must he not start from the lessons of the school?'

"The Indian problem is, in no small measure, the problem of education.

"Many take a purely 'intellectual' view of education and are satisfied with the 'gains' of knowledge. One, however, may be intellectually clever, but a moral bankrupt.

"Many regard education as a means of livelihood. But

the problem of life is greater than all the problems of livelihood.

"Education is fellowship. And a school, as I conceive of it, is an ashram,—a family, a home.

"One sin of our educational institutions is that they create an atmosphere of homelessness. No wonder our students have not the freshness and idealism of youth.

"The true principle of education is the principle of spontaneity and self-control. Instead, so many who call themselves 'teachers' try to control their students by punishment, threat, fear, ridicule. Such methods are depressing in their results. They cause diminution of energy.

"In life we advance to the unknown by that which we know.

"The current system of education in the country has reversed this rule of life. We expect students to assimilate a system alien to them and their race-experiences. We teach them a number of subjects without taking the trouble to correlate 'culture' to their race-experiences. Education is not natural when it does not develop continuity of consciousness.

"The teaching of Indian history in our schools and colleges is a delusion and a snare.

"The teacher who does not inspire his students with faith in India's spiritual idealism misses the truth of Indian history. And he cannot train his pupils' intellectual, artistic, social and constructional impulses.

"In the days of India's glory the message the teacher gave his pupils was the message of brahmacharya, (abstinence), which, interpreted, means 'walking in the manner of God.'

"With songs in their hearts, pouring out into the very stones of India's soil their aspirations and love, they surrendered to God their simple lives, the heroes of our history did. They sanctified India's earth by their sufferings and their songs. And India's earth sanctified by her men can achieve the power of brahmacharya (abstinence).

"To retain the glory of youth it is necessary, also, to

develop a feeling for nature. I would have every student spend some time in fellowship with nature.

"The dog, the deer, the cow, the bird, the grass, the flower, the stone, the tree, the flame—are they not children of Nature? Them did the brahmacharis of ancient ashrams love.

"I found among German students one fine quality developed to an extraordinary degree—sense of honour.

"Every member of the Students' Corps was given a ribbon of three colours. If he was convicted of cowardice or cheating, he was deprived of the ribbon. There could be no greater disgrace for the student.

"Indian education must develop a sense for honour among students and teach them to stand up with courage for truth. A student must be filled with the consciousness that he is a guardian of India's honour. And to guard India's honour he must have courage and love of truth."

It will be observed that Vaswani, in his advocacy of the simplicity of form and of too much stress on religion, overlooks the mere practical needs of the age. But then one ought not to forget that St. Mira's High School is for women with whom it lies to uphold the ideal of the race. The womanhood, standing apart from the workaday life, has supplied that religious stamina and that moral solidarity which has helped to keep India's manhood, even when it has wandered long, attached to its moorings.

So long as home continues to be the basis of life in India, there will be need for many institutions like Vaswani's St. Mira.

It is necessary to point out that while in Tagore's school *laissez-faire* reigns in a high degree, in St. Mira's school the young girl is considered to be incapable of finding her way correctly unless she is grounded in the basic principles of Brahmacharjya (abstinence) in her most impressionable age. To compare the two systems, Tagore's pupil is brought up under the fostering care of nature while Vaswani's pupil is protected by a hedge till such time as she is in a position to brave all weathers.

Another institution which ran along the lines of education in old ashram (student's home) was Mahatma Ghandi's institution at Sabarmati.

The ideals are the same, but a very definite practical bias was given to the education imparted there, the handicrafts receiving the greatest stress, especially the spinning and weaving of Khaddar.

Co-education was tried there in a much more intensified form than it has been tried at Viswabharati. But the Mahatma's experience was far from happy in this direction.

The ashram (student's home) of Arabindo, to which a passing mention ought to be made, is an epitome of passivity, the ideal being the mastery of the esoteric system known as "Yogo." It is happy to think, however, that there has gathered round it some of the best intellects of the country who are devoting their time and energy to the enrichment of its literature. It is important to note that, whereas "Yogo" is the ideal, there seems to be no objection to the inmates developing in their own individual manner.

The question of freedom in education becomes extremely important when it is remembered that men present an endless variety. The old ideal, "the man for the system," which represented autocracy in education, is gone. In its place the truth, "the individual first, the system next," has come to stay. With freedom as the premise, different systems have been evolved. The above is a humble attempt to give some idea of the contribution of India in this direction.

Some Ways of Promoting International Goodwill and Understanding in a Rural High School

Miss Helen J. Moore

*Union High School, Huntington Beach,
California, U.S.A.*

It has been said that to know man is to love him. Surely this Conference is demonstrating that fact. So it is in the community about which I am to speak. There the children of Japanese farmers come to high school, and are received by the other students as friends, because they have grown up together. In fact we feel that we do have international goodwill and a measure of understanding in our community.

My comments are based on ten years' experience in a rural high school with an enrolment of approximately 600 students, more than ten per cent of whom are Japanese.

The curriculum is designed to foster a kindly feeling towards other lands. There is no course in ancient, mediaeval, and modern history. Instead, first and second year pupils study world problems, which is history of the past in the light of the present. All classes in the social studies group subscribe to and study magazines on current events. They are well-informed upon what is going on in the world today. Thus they learn to appreciate the problems of foreign lands.

The extra-curricular activities, especially athletics, do more to develop friendship and understanding among the different races than any other phase of high school life. The Japanese boys and girls excel in athletics and also maintain a good scholastic record. There are always many Japanese boys in the football, basket-ball and track teams who become real heroes. Naturally they are very popular with the American boys. The girls, too, are just as popular with

their sex. Often Japanese boys and girls are elected as team managers.

The Nisei hold offices and honours in many activities other than athletics. Last year the treasurer of the student body, an elected office, was a Japanese boy who was both popular with his school mates and highly respected by the faculty. In a graduating class a few years ago a Japanese boy and girl were the valedictorian and salutatorian. This is not unusual, for the American born Japanese are frequently very good students. Because of their excellent command of English they are often appointed or elected to staff offices on the school newspaper and the yearbook.

In the Home Economics Department last year the superior students were Japanese. One girl was employed by the board of trustees to assist in managing the cafeteria, while another girl took charge of sewing classes for a number of days during the absence of the teacher.

We make an effort to increase international understanding by means of our assemblies. World travelers often are scheduled to relate their experiences and show their motion pictures. During the past year our programmes of this character have covered the entire world. Japanese fencing, Swiss songs and yodling, Dutch and Spanish dancing, a Russian chorus, lecturers in costumes are some of the features we have enjoyed.

Among the most instructive programmes of the past year were forum groups sponsored by the University of California. On one occasion exchange students from Germany and Italy described their educational systems and had a discussion afterwards. The eagerness with which our students asked questions was an indication of their interest.

The high school district of Huntington Beach is a very large one, comprising immigrants from Holland, Canada, Japan, etc. These groups are knitted together by the Americanization teacher who is a member of the high school faculty. We have her to thank for many delightful programmes of foreign songs and dances. She too is responsible for getting these people to attend the Parent-Teacher Association meet-

ings. Last year the Japanese ladies were hostesses at a P.T.A. meeting.

From September, 1936, until April the United States Government sponsored a free forum in ten districts throughout the country. Huntington Beach was fortunate in being a member of one of these districts. These discussion groups were addressed by renowned scholars and journalists. These forums were designed to further international understanding and goodwill. High school students were encouraged to attend these meetings and were given credit for doing so. The results of these forums will undoubtedly be an enlightened and more tolerant citizenry.

There are three other means of promoting goodwill and understanding in any high school. They are the radio, the practice of exchanging teachers, and granting sabbatical leave. As these topics have been touched upon elsewhere in this Conference, I shall close with the following suggestions:

1. A government subsidy for the radio so that suitable programmes can actually be used in the classroom.
2. Encourage exchange of teachers from foreign countries.
3. Adopt a sabbatical plan modelled on that of the Territory of Hawaii.

The Cultivation of Religious Sentiment among Middle School Students in Japan

Mr. Senzi Turu

*Superintendent of the Middle School Department,
Meizi Gakuin, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 485)

The Modern Trend of Curriculum-Making in Girls' High Schools in Japan

Mr. Yonckiti Akai

Director, Myozyo-Gakuen, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 490)

Promoting International Understanding

Miss E. M. Mace

*Association of Assistant Mistresses in
Secondary Schools, England*

May I bring to you first the greetings of the association which I have the honour of representing today—the Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools in England. It is a great pleasure to me to be here enjoying the exchange of ideas, and I have heard with much interest the speakers of yesterday and today. I will try to confine myself to points not yet mentioned.

The general theme, "The Promotion of International Understanding," is one to which many members of my association devote a great amount of energy and enthusiasm and is one which offers a wide field for experiment. So long as the peoples of the world, separated as they are by differences of language, remain unknown quantities to each other, so long will the feeling of distrust and disquietude be likely to arise.

From earliest times it has always been the unknown that has been feared.

There would seem to be two main avenues of approach to the goal: one through the adult, the other through the child.

As to the first, we have in the WFEA one way in which friendliness and mutual understanding may be promoted. At these conferences we gain international understanding through the children.

1. In many schools the children have foreign correspondents with whom they exchange letters. Sometimes their correspondent is of the opposite sex, but more often of the same sex. They are very enthusiastic and almost the last question I was asked was 'Have you correspondents for me yet?'

2. Pupils go to stay with their correspondents during the long holidays and so get to know them and their people and surroundings.

3. Some schools "pair" themselves with a school in another country and exchange letters, books, school magazines and curricula.

4. A pupil from another land may come and live with a family and go to school in England for a time while the English pupil goes to the school from which the visitor comes and lives with her family.

5. In cases where the school session of one country closes before another, opportunities could be made for those who are on holiday to stay in the homes of those at work and to attend the school for part of the time. A party of about 20 German girls came to us and lived with our pupils' families for about 3 weeks last year.

6. School journeys to foreign countries are another means of stimulating the pupils' interest in the lives and culture of other nations, together to discuss problems in our common profession, and these meetings, short as they are, give us an opportunity to get to know each other a little and this acquaintanceship may ripen into friendship. We get to know a great deal more of each others' opinions and ideas by the informal talks that take place. It is certainly very important that all teachers should be whole-heartedly working for inter-

national understanding, and I believe that this will be brought about mainly by our influence on the children under our care. It is what we are and what we think that unconsciously absorbs. Just as the fine experimental work of engineers made it possible to overcome the physical barrier between nations, so I think our unseen work on the minds of our pupils may remove the intangible barriers, the dependance of countries on each other being emphasized rather than their disagreement.

The teaching of both history and geography can be used to further this end. Science and music have always been international, and I think especially in teaching science we have many opportunities for showing that all countries are contributing to the general knowledge of the world, and that the barrier of language or that of frontier is one that can be surmounted. All teachers will use their own initiative in stressing the international view in their lessons, so I will say nothing further on it. I will tell you very briefly some of the methods being tried in England to promote this aim. These are actual experiments which have been carried out and our pupils have connections now with many countries. The more interchange there can be between the youth of the nations in these ways or any other, the more understanding will there be between them, for the children of this generation are the parents of the next.

Election of Officers

The appointment of officers for the new biennium is left to Mr. Parker and the committee. (The present officers will serve temporarily.)

Resolutions

The following resolutions were adopted:

1. Resolved that in order to foster the spirit of international goodwill and peace, the curricula of all the nations' schools be prepared on the fundamental

principle of living and virtue, and the textbooks of various subjects taught in the schools are to be prepared on that basis.

2. Resolved that as far as possible the system of destructive competition be eliminated from our schools.
3. Resolved that a new organization be formed to promote.
 - (1) Exchange of teachers.
 - (2) Exchange of correspondence among the students.
 - (3) Exchange of pupils as well as teachers.
 - (4) Educational tours for students.
 - (5) The principle of a sabbatical year for teachers in order to enable them to travel and study in foreign countries.

Contributed Papers

Efforts To Bring about a Better Understanding of People of Other Countries

Miss F. Housley

McKinley High School, Canton, Ohio, U.S.A.

In our high school, McKinley High School, which has 3,500 students, we are doing a few things to spread the feeling of goodwill toward other nations.

Our teachers of French and German have obtained letters of the pupils of France and Germany and given them to our students, and each student writes in his own language. Of course this has brought about many interesting contacts.

This same thing can be done with the Pan-American countries which are very much interested in spreading a goodwill feeling. This can be done by sending the letters to the ambassador of the country with whose students you wish to correspond. The letters will then be sent to the students,

seeing to it, of course, that the letters from girls go to girls and those from boys go to boys.

Then in our social science club, which is an extra-curricular activity, programmes have stressed the customs of other nations by dances and demonstrations of ceremonies of a particular country by students of that country.

We have students of many nationalities in our school because we are a fairly large industrial city and people of many nations have been brought in to work in our factories. In school, children of many nations are grouped together in the same class and learn directly to live with the rest. In some class the teachers ask the pupils to write or tell about the customs of their particular country. A knowledge of the other countries can thus be built up. Through knowledge a spirit of tolerance is easier to bring about. Several years ago we had an "open house" at our high school, that is, for several evenings our building was open to the public for its enlightenment. We demonstrated the work that was being done. Some departments had students dressed to represent certain countries and certain periods of time.

This past year we have had an exchange teacher from England and one of our teachers has been in England. This exchange was effected through the English Speaking Union. The English teacher came to us from a girls' school. Miss Stewart has given our students an insight into English customs. And I know she is going to take back many new phrases and ideas to her girls. Miss Stewart tried to get a wide view of the country. She has told our students of the many differences between the two countries.

In our history and journalism classes, current event magazines or papers are studied and reports are made, so that the students know what is taking place in the other countries. Teachers and citizens who have paid visits to some other country are frequently asked to tell the students of their experiences, thus giving to a large number of students pictures of a country other than their own.

This, then, is the attempt that we have made to foster tolerance and goodwill toward people of other countries.

The Secondary School for General Instruction

Polish Organization Committee

Introduction

The Polish educational authorities had to contend with a tremendous variety of conditions and institutions when they set to create a uniform educational system in the newly formed Republic. This system was based on modern pedagogical methods and on the demands of Polish life, freed from former compulsion and alien influence. This task, although demanding much thought and organization, was not so enormous from the material point of view, nor as regards the number of teachers required, as was that of organizing the elementary schools. The work was facilitated from the material point of view, because the pre-war secondary schools were not State schools but belonged to local bodies, social institutions, and private persons.

Organization and Structure

Till 1932 the normal organization of the State secondary school of general instruction or gymnasium was as follows:

1. This school consisted of 8 classes.
2. The three lower classes, I, II, and III, formed an uniform foundation called the lower gymnasium, without Latin
3. The five upper classes, IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII, forming the so-called upper gymnasium were differentiated into sections:

(a) Mathematics, natural science, (b) humanistic with Latin, (c) classic, with Latin and Greek.

The law of 1932 on the organization of schools introduces essential changes in the secondary school.

The objects of the secondary school are strictly defined. They are to give youth a foundation for full cultural development, to prepare them to take an active part in the civic life of the community, and to qualify them for studies at higher schools. According to the new law the teaching in secondary schools lasts for six years; the two lower classes of the former secondary school are assigned to the elementary school. It consists of a four-year gymnasium and two-year lyceum course. The gymnasium and lyceum can be organized as separate institutions boys, girls, or co-educational—or constituted as a whole.

Pupils who are over 11 or under 16 years of age, and who have completed the course of the elementary school of the 2nd grade or the 6th class of the elementary school of 3rd grade, may be received into the 1st class of the four-year gymnasium. Before entering the gymnasium they must pass an entrance examination in Polish, geography, arithmetic, and geometry. Candidates who do not possess a certificate from the elementary school must pass a full entrance examination in all subjects contained in the curriculum of the second degree of the elementary school, with the exception of drawing, handicraft, gymnastics, and singing.

Pupils who have finished the elementary school of the 1st grade must, in addition, go through the programme of the 5th and 6th classes of the 3rd grade of the elementary school before they can be received into a gymnasium.

In principle, the gymnasium curriculum is the same for all schools; it includes Latin, and is not divided into sections. The Ministry can give permission for organizing gymnasiums without Latin.

The gymnasiums organized according to a special statute have 4 classes of one year each and, if the number of pupils in the class exceeds 45, a second parallel class may be opened. If the gymnasium is a separate institution it must have 8-12 divisions.

Two hundred and five days in the year are assigned for teaching; each lesson lasts for 45 minutes, the intervals between lessons 10 minutes. One of the intervals, however,

must be longer than 10 minutes.

The gymnasium is run by a headmaster, who is responsible for its organization and condition.

In each State gymnasium the internal authority of the school is a "Pedagogic Council," which co-operates with the headmaster in educational and didactic matters. The Council is composed of the headmaster, the teachers, and the school doctor, as well as the school psychologist, if there is any.

The Pedagogic Council discusses how to carry out the regulations of the authorities, looks after the education and instruction of the pupils, distributes the teacher's work, etc., estimates the progress of the pupils' work, receives and discusses pupils.

Curricula and Methods of Teaching

The curriculum of the gymnasium is broader than that of the elementary school. It includes Polish culture, its connection with practical and social life, and the relation of general human culture with Poland, with more detail than is done in the elementary school.

The programme of instruction in the gymnasium is shown below. (See P. 473.)

The two-year lyceum is to take the place of the 7th and 8th classes of the gymnasium of the former type. It will be divided into two sections as regards the programme.

Candidates are received into the lyceum of general instruction from their 16th year, after having completed the course of the four-year gymnasium. The lyceum gives theoretic preparation for studies in the higher schools.

The new 1932 curriculum of the secondary school is being carried out in the school year 1936-37 in the first six classes of the former 8-class gymnasium. Instruction is still given according to the old programme in the two highest classes, which are to be transformed into a lyceum.

The methods of teaching are based on modern didactic principles, i.e., on promoting the maximum of independent work on the part of the pupils. Already in the introduction

to the programme of the gymnasium (1922) we read: "It declares war against the method according to which the teacher resorts exclusively to books and lectures without allowing any scope for the pupils' independent work." This is the spirit which permeates the whole programme, and which is to be introduced into the secondary school.

Subjects and Occupations	Classes				Total
	I	II	III	IV	
Religion	2	2	2	2	8
Polish	6,3*	4	4	4	16½
Latin	0,5*	4	4	4	14½
Modern language	6,4*	4	4	4	17
History	3	3	3	0,3*	10½
Geography	3	2	2	3,0*	8½
Biology	3	3	—	2	8
Physics & Chemistry .	—	—	4	4	8
Mathematics	3	4	4	4	15
Practical training . . .	2	2	2	2	8
Gymnastic	2	2	2	2	8
Total	30	30	31	31	122

Second modern language	from the second half-year of the 2nd class, 2 hours weekly
Drawing	2 hours weekly in every degree of instruction in this subject
Music	1 to 4 hours weekly

* The figures before the line signify the number of hours in the first half-year and those after the line the number of hours in the second half-year.

- In addition:
- (a) Gymnastics, 10 minutes every day.
 - (b) Games, sports, and field games and sports in groups not exceeding 90 pupils, 2 hours.
 - (c) Obligatory music audition, 1 hour monthly.

The above attitude entails the development of the heuristic or personal research method. Hence special importance is laid on laboratory exercises and handicraft.

The changes and progress in teaching methods and education have necessitated greater endowments of the schools in laboratories, drawing class rooms, workshops of different kinds, collections, museums, school libraries, gymnastic halls, sport fields, school gardens and so on.

The most important classroom requisites are those which the pupil makes himself and which thus satisfy the requirements of active investigation and critical attitude on the part of the pupils towards the problems they have to solve.

In order to show the progress in this direction, we may state that, in only one of the school districts, the number of laboratories, physical, chemical, biological, geographical, handicraft, grew from one in 1919-20 to 48 in 1927-28, and to 72 in 1934-35. Often, the secondary schools profit by the laboratories of other institutions. The number of school gardens are also increasing steadily; in 1918 there were 27, in 1927-133 and in 1934-157.

In gymnasiums instruction is based chiefly on the work in school. Home work of the pupil is limited to two hours in the two lower classes, and to two and a half hours in the two higher ones; the aim of homework is for the pupil to commit to memory, to apply the knowledge obtained at school, and to work out problems independently. The purpose of the textbook is clearly defined: it serves to give systematic information and a general idea of the subject concerned.

Instruction in the secondary school systematically awakens and develops, besides intellectual aptitudes, physical and moral strength. It promotes alertness and efficiency, and aims at intellectual development and moral training.

Although every teacher exercises a moral influence by the very act of teaching and by associating with his pupils, the educational duties of the secondary school demand a specialization of functions and activities. The regulations of 1927 introduced a unified process of educational work in secondary schools, industrial schools, and teachers' training

colleges, which was made compulsory for all State institutions. These regulations enforce on all the teachers the duty of exerting a moral influence over the class. They also foresee the appointment of specialized teachers to undertake definite educational tasks in the school.

In Polish schools we observe on the part of the pupils a tendency towards social activity, a desire to act together for a common aim, to try to train their faculties for citizenship. These impulses find an outlet in many prospering pupil institutions, such as self-help circles, co-operatives, sport unions, learning circles, etc., and scouting which is extremely popular in Poland. These departments of school life are supervised by the school. The collective life of the pupils finds its expression in class and inter-class organizations. Special tutors superintend the pupil's organizations; pupils are advised to work well in one organization and not to attempt too much at a time. Pupils are trained to become active and conscientious citizens of the Republic, considering the nation's welfare as their supreme law. They are taught to feel responsible for their word and deed and for the honour and welfare of their school.

Co-operation with the Home

Co-operation with the home consists in acquainting the parents with the work and aims of the school, in exchanging information on school and home, and in working in co-operation. It is the duty of the headmaster and teachers to look after the pupils boarding out, as well as after those who are in difficult circumstances or have to come from a great distance.

Promotion

Pupils receive marks for their work and conduct. In the school documents The Pedagogical Council state reasons for assigning them such and such especially when they are unsatisfactory.

At the end of the first half-year and at the end of the school year, the pupils receive a certificate containing a report of their progress and marks for all subjects and their conduct. Parents or guardians are also informed about the results in the first and third school terms.

A pupil is promoted to the higher class if he or she has at least pass marks for all compulsory subjects (non-compulsory subjects have no influence on the promotion.) In exceptional circumstances, a pupil may be promoted to the 2nd or 3rd class in spite of insufficient marks for one subject. For the following classes, however, there can neither be supplementary examinations nor promotion.

At the end of the fourth class and having obtained at least pass marks for all subjects and conduct, the pupil obtains a certificate of having completed the gymnasium course, which gives him the right to go up for the entrance examination of a school of lyceum type.

Pupils who have obtained their gymnasium certificate and wish to be admitted to the lyceum must inform the headmaster of the gymnasium, who sends in his opinion of the pupil and his yearly marks. Parents can require to be informed of the headmaster's opinion.

Non-State schools are divided into local board schools, i.e., maintained by municipalities and districts, and private schools, i.e., maintained by various associations, social institutions, corporations, and private persons.

As we see from the tables shown below, the number of pupils frequenting non-State schools, in spite of the greater number of the latter, is only slightly larger than the number of pupils frequenting the State schools. There is also a marked difference between boys and girls: a majority of boys (about 65.5%) goes to the State schools, while the girls chiefly (about 74%) frequent the non-State schools, mostly private ones.

The numerical relation of boys', girls', and co-educational schools, the number of teachers, and the division of the general secondary schools deserve a close attention. (See Pages 477-479.) It is to be noted that the most frequented type of school is the humanistic one.

Secondary Education Section

School Year	Schools	Sections	Teachers			Pupils		
			Total	Men	Women	Total	Boys	Girls
1929-30	759	7,193	14,279	9,532	4,747	203,387	125,554	77,533
1930-31	743	7,135	14,459	9,528	4,931	201,992	125,097	79,895
1931-32	748	6,913	13,734	8,939	4,795	202,846	123,131	79,715
1932-33	765	6,614	13,705	8,862	4,843	185,805	111,557	75,248
1933-34	763	5,480	13,218	8,563	4,655	160,812	95,778	65,034

Number of Schools 1933-34

Men's S.	250	2,047	4,649	4,140	509	68,683	66,139	514
Women's S.	259	1,575	4,517	1,510	3,007	43,771	141	43,630
Co-educational S.	274	1,858	4,052	2,913	1,139	50,358	29,498	20,860

State Schools

School Year	Schools	Classes	Teachers			Pupils		
			Total	Men	Women	Total	Boys	Girls
1931-32	277	2,930	5,203	4,028	1,175	100,733	77,325	23,408
1932-33	283	2,709	5,225	4,060	1,165	90,358	68,041	22,317
1933-34	303	2,524	5,530	4,216	1,314	86,907	63,004	23,903
Men's S.	153	1,407	2,987	2,699	288	48,824	48,321	503
Women's S.	48	383	935	305	630	15,549	62	13,487
Co-educational S.	102	734	1,608	1,212	396	24,534	14,621	9,913

Local Board Schools

1931-32	61	551	943	632	311	13,873	7,359	6,514
1932-33	59	476	891	584	307	12,672	6,523	6,149
1933-34	55	375	800	511	289	9,743	4,970	4,778
Boys' S.	8	72	175	153	22	2,424	2,424	—
Girls' S.	17	122	261	92	169	3,244	—	3,244
Co-educational S.	30	181	364	266	98	4,080	2,546	1,534

Private Schools

School Year	Schools	Classes	Teachers			Pupils		
			Total	Men	Women	Total	Boys	Girls
1931-32	410	3,502	7,588	4,279	3,309	88,240	38,447	49,793
1932-33	423	3,429	7,589	4,218	3,371	83,775	36,993	46,782
1933-34	425	2,581	6,888	3,836	3,052	64,157	27,804	36,353
Boys S	89	568	1,487	1,288	199	15,435	15,394	41
Gril's S.	194	1,070	3,321	1,113	2,208	26,978	79	26,899
Co-educational S.	142	943	2,083	1,435	645	21,744	12,331	9,413

Pupils According to Classes

Items		Total	Classes								
			New Type	Former Type							
				I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
No. of Sections		5,480	1,076	2	159	2	968	896	813	780	784
Pupils	1931-32	202,846	—	26,832	25,735	23,347	27,217	24,477	23,913	22,159	19,771
	1932-33	186,805	—	7,646	28,128	26,568	30,661	23,352	22,632	20,798	19,376
	1933-34	160,812	37,798	31	3,945	57	33,672	26,227	21,256	19,534	18,292
Boys' S		95,778	22,426	21	2,273	37	19,378	14,847	12,561	12,390	11,845
Girls' S.		65,034	15,372	10	1,672	20	14,294	11,380	8,695	7,144	6,447
Men's S.		66,683	16,207	5	894	37	13,579	10,455	8,859	8,588	8,059
Women's S.		43,771	10,009	—	823	20	9,739	7,676	6,021	4,993	4,490
Co-educational S.		50,358	11,582	2	2,228	—	10,354	10,354	6,376	5,953	5,743

Pupils of Higher Classes According to Type of School

		School Types					
Items	Total	Former class	New classic	Humanist Lyceum	Math Scientific		
No. of De- partments	810	60	51	600	4	95	
No. of Sections	7,241	322	276	3,148	9	486	
Pupils:	1931-32	117,537	9,684	7,491	85,649	386	14,324
	1932-33	116,819	8,831	7,897	86,096	213	13,752
	1933-34	118,981	8,204	8,467	88,832	219	13,259
Boys' S	71,021	7,712	7,613	44,859	—	10,837	
Girls' S.	47,960	492	854	43,973	219	2,422	
Men's S	49,540	7,122	5,774	27,787	—	8,857	
Women's S	32,919	309	73	30,918	219	1,400	
Co-educational S	36,512	773	2,620	30,127	—	3,002	

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS SECTION

Chairman: Mr. Roy Cloud. State Executive Secretary, California Teachers' Association, San Francisco, California, U.S.A.

Secretary: Mr. H. Humphrey, 23 Kingswood Avenue, Bolton, England.

Co-operating Member: Mr. Otohiko Hasegawa, Principal, Aoyama Normal School, Tokyo, Japan.

Place of Meeting: Room No. 7.

First Session *Thursday, 5th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)*

Second Session *Saturday, 7th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)*

First Session

Opening Address of the Chairman

"I am glad to greet the members of the Teachers' Organizations Section of the W.F.E.A. this morning. We have quite a full programme of discussion and papers. Dr. Hardy, who was to give the first discussion, is not here just now, so I shall use just a few moments of his time in discussing or rather opening the discussion for the section and perhaps outlining the conference methods that may be followed as the morning proceeds. The secretary of this section is Mr. Humphrey of England. He will be with us and have charge of the secretarial duties of the morning.

Teachers' Organizations Section



Mr. Roy Cloud
Chairman



Mr. H. Humphrey
Secretary



Mrs. Juliana C. Pineda
(See P 492)



Teachers' Organizations Section in Session

In opening this special section, I greet you in the name of a great national education association of the United States. Our association covers the entire United States. We haven't a membership as large as we should like to have. Out of practically a million teachers in America, there are approximately two hundred thousand members in the National Education Association. The membership is entirely voluntary. The dues are two dollars a year and the work of the organization is professional in its nature. For many years the professional part of the National Education Association of the United States of America was concerned with the real work of organization. During the past three years, however, the work of the national association has changed somewhat in that it is becoming more political in its application. The Secretary of the National Education Association of the United States, Mr. Willard Givens, is working in Congress in an effort to have a subsidy of three hundred million dollars, annually appropriated for the schools of America in order that education may be equalized and that the opportunities of the children may be such that every child will have the same opportunities that other children of the nation have. I might illustrate that, in a way, by saying that I am the Secretary of the California Teachers' Association, one of the State associations of the United States of America. We have forty thousand teachers in California and thirty-six thousand teachers of all classes from the university through the junior colleges, teachers colleges, State colleges, high schools, junior high schools, elementary, and primary schools. Of these, thirty-six thousand are members of our organization. Our organization is very largely political, although we work on the professional side of the situation. My own position requires that I go to the Legislature of the State of California, the same as your Diet in Japan, and work for the passage of favourable school laws for the teachers. Due to such work, in California we have retirement allowances for our teachers. Also we have life tenure for our teachers after they have served three years of probation and sick leave. Any teacher who is engaged in school work and becomes ill receives for

five months the difference between the regular salary of the position and the salary paid to a substitute teacher which is a very considerable part of the salary. We have sabbatical leave and we have exchange teachers. We have our twelve months' pay for teachers in California, and we have established a minimum salary of \$1,320.00 per year for the beginning teachers of California as the lowest salary paid. We believe that because of these conditions the teachers of the State become more professionally minded than they would if the conditions were not so favourable. The living conditions, the financial conditions, the assurance of a position, the knowledge that when they have completed their work they will have a retirement salary, makes a teacher become more satisfied with the position and she is able to become more professionally minded. I was in San Francisco at the time of the meeting of the National Education Association in 1923, when the World Federation of Education Associations was established. I have been a member of the World Federation since that time. I believe that the real work of the World Federation of Education Associations is to promote a feeling of understanding of world friendship among the peoples of the nations. I believe that only by teaching boys and girls that every other boy and girl in the United States, as well as in other countries, are children just as they are, that they have the same hopes, the same ambitions, the same aims in life, the same desires, can we promote a feeling of universal friendship. Last night our friend, Mr. Nakazawa, who is to speak to us this morning, entertained several of us at a Japanese dinner, in which a number of nations were represented. By sitting there together and getting the views of each, we became friends. When we know a person and become really acquainted with him, we can understand his viewpoints and there is not going to be war. There isn't going to be trouble but there will be friendship when the schools of the nations have taught the boys and girls that every other boy and girl of the world are their friends. I heard our President say, just a night or so ago, that we're getting to be a small world; the radio and the airship bring us together in just a few minutes.

It isn't days and months before we meet or hear of each other now. We're just neighbours, all of us, and when we get that idea, we're going to be a better people and my own idea is that the teachers' associations of the nations are the ones which must help to carry that message to the people of the world.

Dr. Hardy has come and he will present his paper this morning. Dr. Hardy of Canada, a directorate representative, will talk to us this morning and discuss the 'Attaining of Professional Status through Teachers' Organizations.'

Attaining of Professional Status through Teachers' Organizations

Dr. E. A. Hardy

124 Duplex Avenue, Toronto, Canada

At last teaching has become a profession. This greatly desired achievement has been realized in the Province of Alberta in Western Canada. So far as I know, this is the only case in the world in which teaching is recognized by law as a profession. Behind this consummation lies a long story.

The organization of Canadian Teachers into professional bodies goes back to 1916 and the years immediately following. Provinces (except Quebec, which has an organization of long standing) there was a movement among the teachers to combine for the protection and the advancement of their interests. Organizations for academic and pedagogic purposes had been active for many years, but they were not suitable for the handling of such questions as salaries, tenure opposition, and general professional status. The individual

teacher was an isolated unit at the mercy of his employer and with no effective means of looking out for his own interests.

Out of this unrest came the formation in eight of the Provinces of Associations to look after these matters of such vital interest to the teacher, matters both financial and social. The roll call of these associations is as follows:

British Columbia Teachers' Federation, 1916.

Alberta Teachers' Alliance, 1917.

Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation (about same date; reorganized 1933).

Manitoba Teachers' Federation, 1918.

Ontario—Federation of Women Teachers' Associations of Ontario, 1918.

Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, 1920.

Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation, 1920.

Quebec—Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of Quebec, 1864.

(An academic and pedagogic association for many years, later covering the teachers' other interests.)

New Brunswick Teachers' Association, 1918.

Nova Scotia Teachers' Union, 1920.

Prince Edward Island Teachers' Federation, 1924.

One of the most striking facts in this connection is the development of these Provincial Associations at about the same time, and yet quite independently of each other. The same causes in each Province were producing much the same results.

The next step, both logically and chronologically, was the combination of the Provincial units into a national organization. The Western Provinces took the lead in 1919. Ontario assisted in 1920. At the annual meeting in 1921 in Toronto the majority of the Provinces were represented and by 1926 the Canadian Teachers' Federation included the eleven provincial units of the nine Provinces (Ontario having three Provincial Associations).

Of the many effects of this co-operative movement among the Canadian Teachers two may be noticed: (a) a sense of

national consciousness among the teachers and (b) a reaching out for professional status; both being of great importance in the life of Canada. One great difficulty in the efficient operation of the Canadian Teachers' Federation is the great area to be covered. Canada is the third largest country in the world, exceeded only by Russia and China, or the fourth largest if the United States is taken as including Alaska. Canada is as large as the whole of Europe, excluding Italy. It is approximately 4,000 miles from Victoria to Halifax. These distances delay inter-communication by mail and mean heavy transportation changes for national conferences.

The next step was the linking up of the Canadian Teachers' Federation with the World Federation of Education Associations at the formation of the World Federation of Education Associations in San Francisco in 1923. British Columbia and Manitoba were represented and following their report the Canadian Teachers' Federation joined the World Federation of Education Associations as the second constituent unit in 1923, thus giving the Canadian teacher a relationship, local, provincial, national and international, and developing not only professional pride, but a national and world consciousness.

From their origin some twenty years ago these Provincial Associations have been striving constantly to advance the interests of the teacher, financially and socially, with the ultimate purpose of elevating teaching into a profession similar to law and medicine. That would mean such legislation as would erect an organization with control of its affairs and legal power of discipline over its members. The Western Provinces—British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba—took the lead. Campaigns among the teachers, both members and non-members of the Provincial bodies, to secure approval of the idea of the compulsory or automatic membership of every teacher were vigorously conducted. The campaign included the securing of support from the members of the Provincial legislatures and a substantial seeking of public opinion. Bills were drafted to be introduced

into the legislatures incorporating the teachers' organization as a legal entity with sufficient means of support and with the necessary authority to carry out the operation of the organization. Stirring scenes and intense and continued activity were the order of the day until the battle was won in Alberta in 1935 and teaching then and there took on the legal status of a profession.

The simplest and clearest method of setting forth the situation in Alberta is to quote verbatim "The Teaching Profession Act, 1935" passed by the Legislature of Alberta, omitting certain details which need not be given:

1. This Act may be cited as The Teaching Profession Act.

2. (1) There is hereby established and constituted under the name of "The Alberta Teachers' Association" a body corporate and politic.

(2) The Association may take any measure not inconsistent with the provisions of this Act or of any Act or Regulation of the Province of Alberta, which it deems necessary in order to give effect to any policy adopted by it with respect to any question or matter, directly or indirectly affecting the teaching profession.

3. The objects of the Association shall be:

(a) To advance and promote the cause of education in the Province of Alberta.

(b) To raise the status of the teaching profession—

(1) by initiating and promoting research in methods of arousing interest in presentation of teaching the various subjects of the curriculum;

(2) by establishing research libraries and circulating libraries of books, treatises and papers designed to assist the teacher in the classroom.

(c) To promote and advance the interests of teachers and to secure conditions which will make possible the best professional service.

(d) To arouse and increase public interest in educational affairs.

(e) To co-operate with other teachers' organizations in the provinces of the Dominion of Canada and

throughout the world, having the same or like aims and objects.

4. (1) All persons carrying on the profession of teaching in any institution of the Province of Alberta, supported by provincial or municipal taxation, which maintains a department for giving instruction in the courses of study prescribed for elementary, secondary, or technical schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education of the Province of Alberta shall, as a condition of their employment, be members of the Association.

(2) The following persons shall be eligible for membership in the Association; teachers in any Normal School or School of Education; members of the Faculty of the University of Alberta; teachers in any Provincial School of Technology; teachers in any School of Agriculture; teachers in any other educational institution of the Province.

(3) Unemployed teachers who hold a valid certificate of the Minister shall also be eligible for membership.

(4) A member who is not the holder of a valid, permanent certificate of the Minister and who has had less than two years' experience in teaching shall be known as an Associate Member with the same rights, privileges and benefits and subject to the same limitations and restrictions as other members;

Provided, however, that an Associate Member shall not be eligible for election as a member of the Executive Council nor for election or appointment training or certification of teachers or with courses of study for schools operating under the jurisdiction of the Department.

5. The Association shall consist of a federation of local associations and members at large.

6. (1) The Association in general meeting may pass by-laws not inconsistent with the provisions of this Act or of any Act or Regulation of the Province of Alberta respecting the following:

(a) The election of the Executive Council and officers of the Association.

(b) The formation, government, management and

dissolution of local Associations.

- (c) The management of its property and affairs and its own internal organization and administration.
- (d) The maintenance of the Association and the fixing and collecting of annual and other fees.
- (e) The time, place and conduct of the annual and other meetings of the Association.
- (f) Discipline, including the suspension and expulsion of members.
- (g) All such other matters as may be deemed necessary or convenient for the management of the Association and the promotion of its welfare or the conduct of its business.

(2) The Association may also amend, alter or repeal any by-laws.

(3) No such by-laws or amendments or repeal thereto, relating to discipline, shall be valid or take effect until approved by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

7. (1) The Association shall be governed by an Annual General Meeting to be held during Easter week of each year, or at such other times as may be deemed expedient by the Executive Council.

(2) The Annual General Meeting shall be composed of the officers, the Executive Council and the delegates from local associations, as provided by the by-laws.

8. The business of the Association shall be transacted and carried on by the Executive Council, to be elected or appointed as provided in the by-laws. The Executive Council shall be composed of the officers of the Association and at least seven others to be elected by districts.

9. The fees of members of the Association shall be those fixed from time to time by the by-laws.

10. (1) The trustees of any school district in the Province of Alberta are hereby empowered and shall retain from the salary of each and every teacher the amount of membership dues fixed and prescribed by the Association, and all moneys so retained shall be deemed to be a payment on account of such salary and shall be deemed to be a payment

on account of membership dues by the teacher from whom such sum has been retained.

(2) The Department of Education of the Province of Alberta is hereby empowered and shall retain at the end of each school term from the grants payable to each and every school district under The School Grants Act (R.S.A. 1922, Chap. 53) in aid of schools organized and conducted under the provisions of The School Act, an amount equal to the amount so required and retained by such school district from the salary of the teacher, and to receive and pay over to the Association the moneys so retained on account of membership dues of the teacher from whom the said sums were originally retained, and all moneys so retained and paid over shall be deemed to have been paid over to and received by the school district on account of the aforesaid grants;

Provided, however, that any school district, with the consent of the Minister, obtained on request in writing of the Secretary, may pay the fees of members employed by them direct to the Association.

11. Nothing in this Act shall be deemed to interfere with the rights of Separate Schools as provided in The School Act.

Teaching Profession Appeal Board

11a. (1) There shall be constituted a board to be known as the Teaching Profession Appeal Board consisting of three members, one of whom shall be appointed by the Executive Council and two by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

(2) It shall be the duty of the Teaching Profession Appeal Board, and it shall have power,—

(a) To appoint a chairman and secretary;

(b) To serve as a board of appeal in case of suspension or expulsion or other disciplining of members of the Association, or to investigate on the order of the Minister cases involving suspension or cancellation of teachers' certificates.

11b. In the event of any teacher being suspended or

expelled from membership in the Association, or otherwise disciplined by the Executive Council, such teacher shall be entitled to appeal to the Teaching Profession Appeal Board, and in case the said Board confirms such decision of the Executive Council, the Association may advise the Minister to suspend or cancel the certificate of such teacher.

12. Every person guilty of violating any provision of this Act or any of the by-laws made thereunder, shall be liable to a fine of not more than twenty-five dollars (\$25.00) recoverable with costs under the provisions of the law respecting summary convictions.

There are several significant features in this Act;

1. Every Elementary, Secondary or Technical Teacher in the State or Municipality supporting schools of Alberta is a member of the Alberta Teachers' Association.

2. Members' fees are automatically deducted from their salaries and paid to the Association by the Board of Education or the Department of Education.

3. A graded scale of fees obtains, ranging from \$5.00 to \$10.00 a year, according to salary.

4. Instructors in normal schools, colleges, universities and private schools are eligible for membership.

5. The Association has power to discipline its members with a Board of Appeal to deal with appeals from members disciplined.

6. Provision for the affiliation of the Alberta Teachers' Association with such bodies as the Canadian Teachers' Federation and the World Federation of Education Associations.

This is probably the most advanced bit of legislation of its kind in the world and is a challenge to teachers' organizations everywhere. Because it has been in operation only two years it is too soon yet to pass judgment on its merits and defects, but the whole of Canada is watching its workings very closely. One must pay tribute to the comprehensiveness and great simplicity of the bill and to its high ideals in professional advancement through research and co-operation with teachers' organizations throughout the world. The influence of the Canadian Teachers' Federation and the

World Federation of Education Associations is clearly discernible and is clearly understandable as the framers of the bill have for years been active supporters of these wider organizations.

One other Province, Saskatchewan, has a similar act incorporating the Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation in 1935, providing for compulsory membership and payment offers through the Department of Education; but not going so far as to provide disciplinary power. The Provincial Association of British Columbia, Manitoba and Nova Scotia have prepared draft Bills for the consideration of their members. The Provincial Association in Ontario have given a great deal of time and thought to the consideration of a similar act; only Alberta and Saskatchewan have as yet the actual legislation incorporating the teachers into a profession, but it is quite possible that within the next decade such legislation in some form or other may be on the statute books of every Province.

There are three prime factors in making the position of the teacher desirable and effective: (a) adequate remuneration, (b) security of tenure, (c) recognition as a profession. To teachers' organization belongs the major credit for the great improvement of the teacher in these three respects during the last twenty years. It may well be that the Province of Alberta in Western Canada has given the teaching world a lead for the next twenty years.

All-Japan Elementary School Teachers' Association

Mr. Tomuru Nakazawa

*President, All-Japan Elementary School Teachers'
Association, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 493)

Teachers' Organizations in the Philippines

Mrs. Juliana C. Pineda

Division of City Schools, Manila, P.I.

In 1935 there were 7,830 public schools in the Philippines which employed 27,855 teachers, everyone of whom belonged to a local teachers' club and one or two national teachers' associations. An aim common to the different national teachers' organizations is the advancement of the cause of education and the promotion of the interests of teachers.

The most important national organizations are: "The National Federation of Teachers," which admits both public and private school teachers; "The Philippine Normal School Alumni Association," which requires of its members graduation from the State Normal School; "The League of Philippine Public School Teachers' Associations," which has only public school teachers within its fold and which is composed of local teachers' associations; "The Philippine Council on Education," which is more exclusive in nature, requiring as it does higher educational attainments. The Council publishes a year book on the results of studies and researches conducted by its members, "The Philippine Association of School Executives" is composed of superintendents of schools.

The League of Philippine Public School Teachers' Associations, which I represent, is the strongest organization and the one which has embarked on the most noteworthy undertaking. Its annual convention held in May has been attended by delegates from all parts of the country who deliberate on problems pertaining to education and adopted plans for the protection of the interests of teachers. The most outstanding achievement of the League of Philippine Public School Teachers' Associations, however, is the construction of a sanatorium for teachers who fall victims to tuberculosis. The project was conceived by a woman school principal, Mrs. Geronima T. Pecson, presented at the con

vention in 1935, and adopted as its own by the League. The task of materializing the project was placed in the hands of a National Committee, of which Mrs. Pecson was chairman, and the speaker one of the five members. The plans for raising the funds and constructing the building were submitted to the Secretary of Public Instruction and to the then Governor-General of the Philippines. After securing the approval of the authorities concerned, the campaign for funds was started in September, 1935. Every public school teacher in the Philippines contributed two pesos, which is equivalent to one American dollar, and secured a donation of five pesos from friends. A call for donations from wealthy citizens was issued and a most gratifying response was received. Judge Hausserman, an American of long residence in the Philippines, donated P 25,000.00. At the close of March, 1937, when the sanatorium fund was audited, the collection amounted to P 158,935.67. Of this amount, P 56,000.00, or roughly one-third of the total, came from teachers and two-thirds from patrons.

The construction of the pavilion in Manila is now in full swing and its completion is expected in September, that is, next month. As it will cost only P 97,690.00, the League is planning to build another pavilion in one of the southern islands for the teachers in the southern part of the country.

An evidence of the growing consciousness of its important mission is the eagerness with which the League accepted the invitation to send a delegate to the World Conference. The trip expenses of this delegate is defrayed by the League of Philippine Public School Teachers' Associations.

After enumerating the achievements of the League, it will not be amiss to mention a worthy undertaking of the biggest chapter of the League. The chapter I refer to is the Manila Teachers' Association. To promote the financial conditions of the members by encouraging saving and by protecting them from usurers, the Manila Teachers' Association organized in January, 1936, a savings-and-loan association. Its present capital is about P 80,000.00. In December, 1936, at the close of its first year, it declared a

dividend of 6% and at the end of this year, the association expects to declare a dividend of at least 7%.

Besides the aforementioned achievements, the League of Philippine Public School Teachers' Associations has succeeded in influencing legislation affecting teachers and has co-operated with the National Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations in bringing about a harmonious relation between the home and the school.

The National Association of Women Teachers of Secondary Schools

Mrs. Kiku Takeda

*Director, National Association of Women Teachers of
Secondary Schools, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 499)

Summary

At the beginning of the discussion the Chairman called the attention of the members to the points contained in Mme Takeda's paper and then proceeded to summarize all the papers read: "Are there any questions which you would like to ask Mme. Takeda at this time to discuss on the points that have been outlined to you? I think one of the main features of her talk which is worthy of consideration by the people of any nation is her idea of the necessity for guidance for girls. In her general discussion she brings out that thought and it perhaps is one of the main features that we should consider in our work as teachers, not only as teachers in an organization, but as teachers in the various schools. Are there questions you would like to ask Madame

Takeda at this time? I think she has covered her subject so thoroughly that it isn't necessary. For just a few minutes, I shall endeavour to summarize the discussions which have come to you this morning.

Our first talk, by the gentleman from Canada, outlined the value of a teachers' organization as an organization and the benefits derived by the schools of his country because of the organization. It also proved a factor in the stabilization of teaching conditions and of the professionalization of teachers. It seems to me that there isn't anything more important than becoming professionalized as teachers. Teaching must become a profession if we are to exercise the influence which we should as teachers. I think that the gentleman from Canada very splendidly brought that idea to you that ours must become a real profession, just as medicine is a profession just as law is a profession and so must teaching become a profession if we are to exercise the leadership in the countries in which we are working.

The ideas presented by our friend, the President of the Japanese Elementary Teachers' Association, are along the same line that, "in union there is strength." Unless we have a great co-ordinating body of instructors, we shall not be able to get the best for the schools and it's our responsibility to do so. That is our duty to the boys and girls who come to us for guidance.

The lady from the Philippines brought to us the thought of equal opportunities for women and men of the teaching profession. She told about the formation of associations which in the United States we call credit unions. The teachers themselves put their savings into organizations formed by the teachers for the teachers, in which they save their money, and during the past year, six per cent interest was paid upon all of the savings. Through the organization they were able to loan to teachers large sums of money at very reasonable interests. I know of certain countries of the world, where teachers find it necessary to borrow money, for which the rates of interests charged are exceedingly high. I hope the time will come in all of the nations of the

world when every teacher, teaching in a public school, will be paid his or her salary every month of the year, on the first of the month just as every other civil employee is paid. The teachers' salaries should be paid in twelve equal monthly payments so that a teacher should be able to adjust his or her affairs just as other employees of the government are able to do. Thus there would be no need for borrowing during the long vacation periods. That is the work they are doing there in the Islands as reported by Mrs. Pineda. We have also heard from her about the hospital work, that is being done just as it is being done here Japan. Hospitalization is being cared for by teachers' groups who join the hospital unit. In her country they appealed to the public at large for subscriptions. Large sums of money were contributed, and one unit of a hospital has been built for tuberculosis. In those Islands those who are afflicted by that terrible disease, who belong to the teachers' association, and all of the teachers of the Philippines belong, may go to the hospital and receive the care that they so sorely need. A wonderful work is being done by that organization.

Our last speaker talked to us of the necessity of giving to women equal rights and equal opportunities of entering educational work. I think that in our countries, on the other side of the Pacific and perhaps on the other side of the Atlantic, women teachers have had greater opportunities of entering the field of education than has been accorded to the women of this section of the world. It is necessary and right that they should have that opportunity because both boys and girls in their beginning years should have the guidance which comes from those who understand the growth and development of the child. You have here this morning a very wonderful opportunity of learning what the teachers' associations are doing in the various countries of the world for the teachers and for the boys and girls who are the pupils of those teachers.

On Saturday we shall have our second session of this section. I hope that there will be a great number of nations represented in order that we may hear from each of them.

If you are coming to the meeting on Saturday, I hope that you will bring with you such questions as what an educational association should do; what improvement you want in your own country; and what you would like to have your particular organization study. Perhaps we may ask the World Federation of Education Associations to consider these problems which should be studied and which must be considered for the common welfare of all of us. This morning we have tried to develop here the worth-while procedure of educational associations, those great organizations which are so essential for the building of world friendship, for peace on earth and goodwill to all men of all countries. If questions arise as they are bound to do, we shall be able to settle them by conciliation and discussion and we hope that our boys may be able to live their lives for their country in productive work, and in useful service for mankind. I hope that this meeting this morning has been of value to you."

Second Session

**General Outline of
the All-Japan Private Middle
School Pension Fund**

Mr. Doyu Izumi,
Principal, Chiyoda Girls' High School,
Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 504)

Teachers' Associations and the Promotion of the Idea of World Peace

Mr. W. P. King

*Executive Secretary, Kentucky Education Association,
Louisville, Kentucky, U. S. A.*

The subject as announced by your chairman was not exactly what I have in mind, and with your permission, Mr. Chairman, I will make just a little correction. I am going to discuss a number of points which may be considered by teachers' associations in regard to the promotion, along with the programme of education, of the idea of world peace, and I want to build my very brief speech around the idea that teachers' organizations can do something about international goodwill and that there are definite ways in which they can do that thing.

I want to give a little background of teachers' organizations first. Two thousand years or more ago, in an age which the colossal vanity of these modern times has been inclined to stigmatize as an era of pagan darkness, old Plato gave to the world an immortal declaration when he said that "that nation is happiest whose kings are philosophers, and whose philosophers are kings." And I want to submit to you today that no phrase has been coined in the midst of modern thought that more aptly and more eloquently expresses the fundamental principles that a nation's greatness and perpetuity and power are dependent upon the education of its people. For two thousand years nearly, leaders in educational thought and policy have endeavoured to carry out this Platonian philosophy. But it was not until well toward the latter part of the nineteenth century that educationists, leaders among the teachers of the world, conceived the idea that the interests of education and the interests of teachers

could alike be promoted by organized efforts; and so less than a hundred years ago, we began to find teachers' organizations springing up all over the world. They concerned themselves largely in the beginning with the promotion of the interests of teachers, and they have concerned themselves with those interests up until this good hour. The discussions which have gone on here in this World Conference in the last few days have all been indicative of the interests which teachers' organizations have had in the promotion of teacher welfare. Today, in your presence, we had a discussion of one of the fundamental objectives of teachers' organizations over the last quarter of a century. Teachers' organizations in my country and in many of your countries have concerned themselves with the promotion of legislation looking to the development of retirement systems and pension systems, in order that those teachers who have given their lives or the best part of their lives in the service of education might go down to the sunset of old age with some sort of compensation that would guarantee them a degree of security in their declining years. But now we have come upon a new day in education as we have in every other field of human activity. I have conceived the idea that teachers' organizations should expand their programme with the expanding programme of the century. We have to lift our horizons a little and go beyond the prosecution of local interests, so I am saying to you today that teachers' organizations all over the world can accomplish a great deal in bringing about the objectives which are the fundamental principles in this great world organization. namely, the consummation of the idea of international goodwill. And I am going to give you with your permission a few points which I believe are practical. They are certainly very simple. I shall certainly make them brief, but I believe that each one of the ten points which I give to you can be taken back by you to the country from which you come and certainly can be put into actual practice in a large degree, if you—who are representatives of other organizations—will be well on the way to the accomplishment of some of the objectives for which this Conference

exists. In order to save time and to be brief and to the point, I am going to read these ten points that I have jotted down here, simple things that the teachers' organizations in any land can do for the promotion of international goodwill and ultimately the establishment of world peace.

First, each teachers' organization should have an international committee. Now, every man and every woman who is here today knows something at least about the functions of the international committee in a teachers' organization. It isn't necessary for me to elaborate on that, but a great many organizations in my country and, I am sure some of them in your country, have failed to have within their organization itself an international committee which deals with international affairs, and which keeps before its constituency international factual basis.

Second, the topic of international goodwill should appear on every organization programme. Whenever you have a meeting of the teachers of your country or a conference which brings a large number of them together—my contention is that it doesn't matter what the general purpose of that conference is, if it's a conference of any length—there should be some time, some hour, some day, somehow given to the business of discussion of international goodwill, so that every programme should bring that ideal before its people.

Third, organization publications should contain one contribution at least in each issue, bearing upon the subject of international goodwill. Nearly every teachers' organization in the world publishes some sort of journal or newspaper or periodical which deals with the business of the teachers. Every one of these publications should carry in each issue some reference, some discussion of the question of international affairs.

Fourth, each organization should sponsor a continuing programme of interpretation designed to interest and inform both pupils and parents of the cost and the folly of war. I'd like to emphasize that one. I know in a great many countries, we pass it up. We don't lay any stress upon the question

of the cost and the foolishness of war. Those of us who teach history give the data that is set out in the textbooks and tell the causes that led up to the war, and very few of us ever say anything about the results of the war, to the human family or about the results of it to the economic world; and I think that we should carry on, as I have said in this statement here, a continuing programme of interpretation to the pupils and the parents, an interpretation concerning the tremendous cost of war and the colossal loss to humanity which it entails.

Fifth, each teachers' organization should sponsor in secondary schools and colleges frank discussions of the causations of war. I know sometimes we're a little timid about that. We don't want to speak out frankly. We don't want to marshal facts on both sides of the line and evaluate them properly. Many of our people who write histories write the truth, but oftentimes not the whole truth. So I am saying that frequent discussions of these matters and frank discussions of them should be maintained in colleges and secondary schools.

Sixth, each teachers' organization should bring to its periodical programme one speaker from some other country who should speak upon the subject of international relations. I can't imagine anything that puts more life and enthusiasm, gives more colour to a programme of educators, than to have on that programme some speaker who comes from another country, and who brings a message to the people in that country concerning the people in his country and the things that they are doing in education. I know that in my own State programme which I have the responsibility of managing, each year we try to bring somebody from some country across the sea to tell us about their country, about their teachers, about the problems of their teachers, and almost without exception that day and that hour is the most colourful and intriguing feature of our whole programme; and I think that same thing would be true in any other country.

Seventh, through its news, letters, and bulletins to its constituency each teachers' organization should carry some items of interest concerning the activities of other lands.

You read the periodicals that are published by your teachers' organizations if they publish one. Most of them do. There isn't a more interesting chapter in the periodical than the chapter that deals with the simple duties and simple activities in everyday procedure of the people who are doing the same thing that you are doing but doing it in some other country. You are always intrigued by an article of that kind, and when you read an article of that kind, somehow or other there is some sort of intangible and indefinable thing in your heart that reaches out and touches the heart of that other person yonder across the sea; something that brings you together, that gives you common interests, that makes you feel more kindly toward that other person, and thereby builds up some sort of idea of goodwill.

Eighth, the teachers' organizations of each country should inform its membership of the character and activities of similar organizations in other countries. How many of the people in your country know what the teachers' organizations do in my country? How many of the teachers in my country know what are the actual activities of the teachers' organizations in Siam, Germany, India, or Japan? Relatively few of us. But if our teachers' organization would obtain and disseminate that information, it would give all the rest of the teachers an entirely different conception from the one which they probably have now, if they have any.

Ninth, each teachers' organization should encourage foreign study and foreign travel on the part of its members. That's one of the greatest things that this organization is doing. If the World Conference on Education were to be held in any city of the world two years from now and you had no programme, and you were to have no discussion, if, however, the delegates from thirty-six or thirty-seven nations of the world mingled together socially, then such a meeting would be justifiable. Of course when you add to that the splendid contributions that are made by these leaders in educational statesmanship from every nation of the world, there is no human way by which the value of such a conference can be adequately measured.

Tenth, each teachers' organization should disseminate detailed information concerning the World Federation of Education Associations and its purposes. I can speak for the United States of America and say that I believe I am fully justified in saying that by far the large majority of the teachers in the United States of America know little or nothing about principles and purposes of the World Federation of Education Associations; they know little or nothing about the beginning of that organization, about its history, about its objectives, about its struggles to do something, to make some worth-while contribution to the fundamental ideal of world peace and international goodwill. So I say that every delegate to this congress should go back to his or her country and see to it that in the biennium which is to follow, every teacher—every member teacher of this organization—becomes fully informed about every detail of this great conference which has been held in this magnificent city of Tokyo and in this charming land of Japan.

An Outline of the National Elementary School Women Teachers' Association

Mrs. Kyo Kiuchi

*Vice-President, Federation of
All-Japan Elementary School Women
Teachers' Associations, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 524)

Election of Officers

The Section elected as Chairman

Dr. Kisaburo Kawabe

and as Secretary

Mr. H. Humphrey

Contributed Paper

**Professional Organizations of Teachers
in Poland**

Polish Organization Committee

The professional movement of Polish teachers was started and developed in its first period under unnatural and difficult social and political conditions, resulting from Poland's division among three European empires: Russia, Germany and Austria.

The invading States were opposed on political grounds to the formation of the Polish teachers' organizations and later on, when they were obliged to make concessions, on account of the pressure of the liberal currents, they resorted to different means to inhibit the development of these organizations. Besides, the division of Poland into three parts, divided by frontiers, made all contact among the Polish teachers' organizations impossible, so that they developed independently in each of the occupied parts of Poland.

There was, however, a common basis of ideals in the movement of Polish teachers towards organization. Those ideals were: the growing independence movement towards regaining political freedom, and the tendency to professional organizing towards the defense of the aims and purposes of Polish schools, and of the interests of Polish teachers.

Under the Russian rule, where national and political

repressions were very severe, the activities of the teachers took the form of a political movement towards independence. The teachers took a very lively part in the work of the secret political organizations, undertook secret educational work in the service of one ideal—the recovery of national independence. From 1905 two great teachers' organizations existed under the Russian government: the Association of Polish Teachers with conservative tendencies and the Polish Teachers' Union with progressive tendencies, as well as several smaller local organizations. They were societies of secondary school teachers, but they accepted as their members teachers of elementary schools as well and had sections of elementary schools.

The conditions under Austrian rule were different. Austria's growing internal disintegration and the difficulties in internal politics made the Government inclined to concessions. Polish nationals were granted a rather wide autonomy. This was why the organizing movement of teachers had the character of a professional movement. However, the ideas of a struggle for the political freedom of the nation was the mainspring here as well and gave special colouring to all collective movements

The following societies were active under Austrian government: The Pedagogical Society (with conservative tendencies), founded in 1905 and the National Primary School Teachers' Association of Galicia (also founded in 1905). Both were societies of elementary teachers. The secondary school teachers were grouped in a separate society: The Society of Secondary School Teachers (T.N.S.W.), founded in 1884.

The professional movement was the weakest under German rule, notwithstanding that here, earlier than anywhere else in Poland, was founded a Pedagogical Society, created by Evarist Estkowski, an eminent pedagogist. The severe German régime rendered impossible any organizing activity of Polish nationals.

The great historical event, the rebirth of the independent Polish State in 1918, had a great influence on the development of teachers' organizations.

Simultaneously with the consolidation of the three parts in which Poland was divided into one organic State, the teachers carried on a lively activity towards the unification of their professional movement. In consequence of this action several societies with different programme tendencies but comprehending in their activity Poland as a whole, were founded during the period 1917-1919:

The Society of Secondary School and Academic Teachers (T.N.S.W.) was founded in consequence of a fusion of the Society of Polish Teachers and of the Society of Secondary School Teachers.

The Professional Union of Polish Secondary School Teachers was founded in 1919.

The Union of Polish Elementary School Teachers was founded as a fusion of the National Union of Elementary School Teachers of Galicia and of the Association of Polish Elementary School Teachers. In its further development, the Union of Polish Elementary School Teachers and the Professional Union of Polish Secondary School Teachers were united in 1930 into one organization—The Union of Polish Teachers.

The Christian National Association of Primary School Teachers, developed from the activity of the Polish Pedagogical Society, spread over the whole of Poland by the inclusion of several local teachers' organizations.

The Union of Polish Preparatory School Teachers and Educators was founded in 1917.

The Association of Professional School Teachers was founded in 1927.

Those organizations, however differing as to their tendencies, are all essentially unpolitical organizations.

The Polish Teachers Union is the greatest teachers' organization in Poland. It includes teachers of all branches, grades and specialties, from preparatory school teachers to university professors, and its activity concerns all the vital matters of teaching in Poland. The Polish Teachers' Union has 51,800 members, i.e., about 60% of all teachers in Poland.

The Society of Secondary and Academical School

Teachers (T.N.S.W.) includes all teachers of secondary and academical schools, and has 6000 members.

The Statute formulates the Society's ideology as follows:

"§ 3. The Society is unpolitical; its task is to unite all the teachers of Polish Secondary and Academical Schools on the ground of Polish nationality.

"The aims of the Society are twofold: ideological and professional.

"The ideological aim is understood as follows:

"a. The scientific, pedagogical and civic perfection and development of the teachers' individualities.

"b. The propagation among the members of a spirit of comradeship, a feeling of professional solidarity of national citizenship, and of an attitude of social co-operation.

"c. The mutual exchange of all recent scientific attainments, as well as of observations and experience in school practice.

"d. Propagating interest in the problems of Polish school life among the general public.

"e. The popularization of scientific studies and of their results among the general public.

"The professional aim of the Society is manifest in its general tendency towards the following:

"a. Guaranteeing the teachers due conditions of material existence, and of professional work.

"b. Guaranteeing and maintaining the high moral prestige of the teachers' profession in the social hierarchy and in all relations with the State and Commonwealth authorities.

"c. Guaranteeing the teachers' influence on matters concerning school organization, especially in respect to secondary schools.

"d. Acting in the defense of all teachers as a whole, as well as of individual members, before State, Commonwealth and Social authorities, as well as in their relations with all owners of private schools."

The Society T.N.S.W., in its efforts towards the realization of these aims, has developed a lively activity throughout Poland through its Circles, disseminated in different localities of the whole country. The Circle is the smallest group unit and can be founded everywhere where the Society has at least 10 members. During this current year (1937) the Society has 126 Circles. The Circles are united into Districts, which are eight in number.

The chief authorities of the T.N.S.W. are: the General Assembly of the Circles' Delegates and the Board of Directors. The Board's seat is situated in Warsaw. The Central Committee is the executive authority of the Board of Directors. In order to ensure better efficiency in the activities of the Board of Directors, special Committees are formed for the different branches of activity.

Pedagogical matters, concerning the programmes and the organization of schools, belong to the Pedagogical and Programme Committee, who decides opinions and formulates desiderata and theses.

Two special Committees are in charge of the interest of the teachers of State schools and of those of private schools.

The state of affairs in private schools has been rather difficult during these last years on account of the general economic difficulties. They are the object of the Board's special concern.

Publishing activities are an important branch of the Society's tasks. The *Pedagogical Review* (*Przegląd Pedagogiczny*), which is a weekly paper, dedicated to the problems of secondary and academic schools and to the Society's professional policies, is its official organ. Besides, the Society publishes two pedagogical papers, both on a high scientific level: *Culture and Education* (*Kultura i Wychowanie*) and *The Museum* (*Muzeum*), and also a weekly paper for young people: *The Sparks* (*Iskry*).

The Society publishes also books through the Publishing Company. "Książnica Atlas Sp. Akc.," as one of its shareholders, holding a large number of shares and having representatives of the Board of Inspection.

A special Committee has been formed for matters of mutual self-help and has the following scope of activities: legal help, employment mediation, and the organizing of the teacher's leisure.

Legal help is given to members under the form of legal advice and of interventions. (During the last period recorded, legal advice was given in 210 cases; intervention was undertaken in the Ministry of Religious Cults and Public Education and before other authorities in 107 cases.)

The Office of Employment Mediation is active throughout all the provinces of Poland; all members can apply here freely. In 1936, 270 places were declared, 311 persons applied for employment, 67 places were granted.

Leisure is organized by realized holiday courses, vacation colonies, and in the administration of the Society's own Resting Homes, organized on a very modern scale in the spa of Krynica and in Orłowo (near the seashore) Society's Homes afford the members inexpensive and comfortable sojourns.

The scope of self-help activities includes also financial help, given to the members and their families. It comes from the following sources: the Gratitude Fund, destined for one-time or settled monthly grants to former teachers, incapable of work; the Posthumous Fund; the A. Mickiewicz Fund, destined to grants to widows and orphans; the Curator Sobiński Fund, destined for granting loans to members; the J.J. Czarniecki Fund, destined for scholarships to orphans of the Society's members. The general sum of those grants, loans, and scholarships amounts to 50,000 Zlotys yearly.

In its external activities the Society maintains a close contact with the State Authorities, and especially with the Educational Authorities. The Board presents to the Ministry of Religious Cults and Public Education memorials and motions concerning current matters of education, school organization, and the professional interests of the teachers.

The educational activities (lectures) of the Society should also be mentioned.

They are carried on jointly with social educational

institutions, such as the Free University Lectures, the Society for Workers' Education.

Besides, the Society is a member of the "Bureau International des Fédérations Nationales des Professeurs de l'Enseignement Secondaire Public."

The Christian National Association of Elementary School Teachers

The Christian National Association of Elementary School Teachers includes elementary school teachers of Polish nationality and Christian faith (§ 26 of the Statutes). The Association has 8,000 members.

The aims of the Association, according to the Statute are:

- "§ 5. a. Uniting Polish elementary school teachers for the promotion of those schools as well as of public and home education in a Christian and national spirit.
- b. Raising the prestige of the teachers' profession, education of teachers and attaining influence on the organization of elementary schools.
- c. Defending the teachers' interests in professional, official and social matters.
- d. Giving financial and legal help to its members.
- e. Promoting social and mutual intercourse.
- f. Popularizing problems concerning the strengthening, as well as the cultural and economic development of the Polish State."

In its efforts towards the realization of these aims, the Association develops manifold internal organization activities: self-help, self-education, general education, and publications.

The smallest group units are local Circles, which can be started with a number of seven members at least. In December 1936, there were 156 active local Circles. The superior organization units are. District Circles and Circuit Departments. The authorities of the Association are. the General Assembly of Delegates, and the Board, whose seat is in Warsaw.

The paper, *The Polish Teacher* (Nauczyciel Polski), which

is devoted to the problems of elementary schools and of the professional interest of teachers, is its official paper. During these last years, the principal problems discussed in the paper were problems of elementary education, school buildings, and the moral and material situation of teachers.

An important place in the self-education of the Society's members is taken by the papers, devoted to educational problems, and especially to the problems of elementary education: the monthly paper, *The School* (Szkoła), and the *Pedagogical Quarterly* (Kwartalnik Pedagogiczny). Those papers, and especially the *Pedagogical Quarterly* are published on a high scientific level.

Among the publications of this Association, the paper for the youth, *The Young Pole* (Młody Polak), deserves special attention. This paper is vital, interesting, a good reading to young people, and gives valuable material to the teacher in his school work.

Besides the publications, the self-education activities include self-education courses, conferences, etc.

In legal self-help, the members of the Association dispose as a rule of free legal advice and legal defense in matters having their origin in the professional work or in the social activities of the teacher. The material self-help of the members includes a posthumous fund, grant (not to be returned), one-time help in exceptional cases, scholarship funds and investment funds. The Association spends about 5,000 Zlotys yearly on posthumous funds, grants and relief.

The members' fees, and incomes from undertakings and donations are the foundation of income and of the estate of the Association.

The Association owns a tubercular sanatorium, "Modrzejów," in Zakopane, a Resting Home in Jastrzebia Góra and a house with leased flats in Lwów. The sanatorium "Modrzejów" is situated in beautiful surroundings, endowed with necessary medical apparatus and can admit 150 persons. The Association arranges for its members vacation camps, solicits reductions in spas, and places its members in Resting Homes of other organizations on mutual grounds

The Association's activities are manifest in its attitude towards the Educational Authorities, social organizations, especially professional and educational ones. The Association presents to the educational authorities memorials, motions, and opinions concerning the problems of elementary schools and the professional interest of teachers.

The Association is a member of the Polish Section of the New Education Fellowship, of the General Workers' Council, etc.

The Association co-operates with a series of educational societies, social institutions, and young peoples' associations.

The Association of Professional School Teachers

The Association was founded in 1927.

This rather late period of organizing the teachers of professional schools is in consequence of a relatively small development of professional schools in Poland, in comparison with other schools.

Professional schools have no tradition in Poland. That is why the Association of Professional School Teachers has the important task of propagating and forwarding professional education in Poland. This has been expressed in the Statute (§ 4).

The purposes of the Association are:

1. To propagate the ideas of professional education and to help it find due appreciation in Polish society.
2. To perfect and develop the scientific and pedagogical efficiency of professional teachers.
3. To organize the teachers in order to carry on common cultural, educational, and social work.
4. To collect scientific material concerning professional schools.
5. To collaborate with educational authorities in the development of professional schools.
6. To defend the professional interests of the teachers and to attain for them due conditions of work

and of material existence.

7. To collaborate with other teachers' societies and with similar organizations, and to propagate their development."

The Association counts 1,500 members. The Circle is the smallest group unit; it can be started in places where 10 members at least are willing to co-operate. In this current year, the Society has 53 Circles. The Circles form Districts, which are now eight in number.

The Association's Authorities are: The General Meeting of Delegates and the Board. The Society publishes a paper, *The Professional School Opinion* (Głos Szkoły Zawodowej), a monthly paper, published in about 2,000 copies and devoted to the problems of professional schools and to the defense of the professional interests of the teachers.

The Union of Polish Preparatory School Teachers and Educators

The Union is somewhat in a similar situation as the Association of Professional Teachers. The preparatory school education, although theoretically appreciated and considered as most necessary, is not yet duly developed in Poland, and the situation of the preparatory school teachers is worse than that of teachers of other schools.

That is why the Union, in realizing its aims, finds far greater obstacles to overcome than other teachers' societies.

The Union publishes two papers, devoted to the problems of promoting preparatory education: *Preparatory School Organization* (Organizacja Pracy w Przedszkolu), and *My Child* (Moje Dziecko).



Besides the teachers' organizations already mentioned, there exist in Poland the following organizations of lesser importance with fewer members:

The Professional Association of Elementary School

Teachers' Organizations Section

Teachers of the Polish Republic.

The Association of Farming School Teachers.

The Christian Professional Union of Private School Teachers.

The Association of Catholic Women Teachers in Cracow.

The Union of Physical Education Teachers.

The Union of the Deaf and Dumb School Teachers.

The Polish Union of Physical Education Instructors.

Besides, there exist several organizations of teachers, belonging to national minorities: namely,—

The Mutual Help Society of Ukrainian Teachers.

The Professional Union of Jewish School Teachers in Poland.

The White Russian Professional Teachers' Union.

VISUAL EDUCATION SECTION

Chairman: Mr. Tsunekichi Midzuno, Supervisor of Social Education, Bureau of Social Education, Department of Education, Tokyo, Japan.

Secretary: Mr. F. R. Bassett, 98 High Field Lane, Southampton, England.

Co-operating Member: Baron Takeru Yamakawa, Director, Bureau of Social Education, Department of Education, Tokyo, Japan.

Place of Meeting:

First and Third Sessions, Room No. 31;

Second Session, Meiji Seimei Building.

First Session *Thursday, 5th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)*
Film Demonstration at Meiji Seimei Building
2 p.m.-4 : 30 p.m.

Second Session *Friday, 6th August, 9 a.m.-12 : 30 p.m.*
and 1 : 30 p.m.-3 : 30 p.m.

Third Session *Saturday, 7th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)*

First Session

Opening Address of the Chairman

"Now the meeting will please come to order. First of all, I thank you heartily for your attendance at the meeting. We are very happy to be able to open this meeting of the Section of Visual Education. The general topic, as you know, is "The Promotion of International Goodwill through Visual Education," and I hope that through the activities of the Section, we shall be able to contribute something to the promotion of international goodwill.

At the outset I should like to know how many delegates are here from the United States, England and other countries, and to express our thanks for them.

Will the American delegates please rise? (Applause.) Thank you. How many Canadian delegates? Please stand up. (Applause.) How many English? (Applause.) Now, how many from the other European countries? Please stand up. (Applause.) Will those from India please stand up? Are there no Indian delegates in this section? Are there any other delegates from Oriental countries? (Applause.) Thank you.

I also ought to thank Mr. Bassett, recommended by Dr. Monroe, who takes the position of Secretary. Will you please stand up, Mr. Bassett? He is going to take charge as Secretary during the sessions. On this occasion I should like also to thank the departments and institutions of this country for their hearty co-operation, notably the Bureau of Social Education for the publication of "Film Education in Japan," copies of which have been presented to all the foreign delegates. And also I am very grateful, as Chairman, to our Committee on Gramophone Education, which was responsible for publishing *Education through the Gramophone in Japan*. All the delegates have already received that pamphlet, I believe.

Visual Education Section



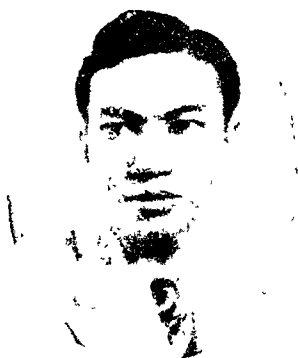
Mr. Tsunekichi Mizuno
Chairman



Baron Takeru Yamakawa
Co operating Member



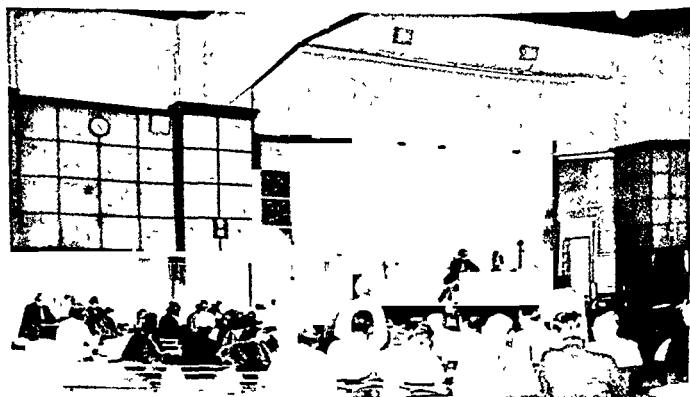
Dr. Zierold
(See P. 520)



Mr. Solomon V. Arnaldo
(See P. 534)



Miss B. L. Dore
(See P. 546)



Visual Education Section in Session

On this occasion I should also like to present to you greetings from our Italian friend, Dr. Luciano de Feo, Director of the International Institute of Educational Cinematography. He has sent these greetings to the Seventh Conference, especially for the Section on Visual Education.

Message

Dr. Luciano de Feo

*Director, International Institute of Educational
Cinematography, Rome, Italy
(Read by Professor Arundell del Re)*

It is a sign of the times that it is possible today to hold International Congresses far from the old classical centres of Western culture. Rapidity of communications has abolished distances and knit together the various parts of the earth, and every capital of the civilized world is now a possible seat for a world conference, for one of those meetings where men of all nationalities, representing the élite of their respective countries, meet to exchange their ideas on a given subject, and in this way learn to know one another better, which is the condition necessary for reciprocal esteem. All this is specially true when these international courts set aside politics in order to devote themselves to the things of the spirit.

Such, indeed, is the case with the World Educational Conference, the aim of which is to make available for all the experiences of each in the art of educating youth, bearing in mind the necessity for giving to the generations which tomorrow will wield the destinies of their countries a larger understanding of the world, of its variety in unity, of the solidarity of nations as regards the problems which today

trouble and divide them for lack of a serenely objective view of their individual peculiarities, of their needs, of their legitimate aspirations, and of their capacity for realizing them.

This desire to orientate the educators of youth in this direction is apparent in the programme of the Seventh World Conference; and this too is a sign of the times to wish to aspire so actively to peace and good harmony amongst peoples. One desires most strongly that which one has not got or that which one feels to be most precious.

I find an evidence of this preoccupation of the World Conference above all in its decision to include among the subjects for study "The Promotion of International Goodwill through Geographical Education" and to consider the cinema, and in a general way the visual image, as one of the principal instruments of this education. As Director of an Institute which for many years has supported the cinema as one of the means suited to bring peoples together, I can but subscribe to this purpose. No means is better than the cinema for illustrating human geography and for showing that men, similar by nature, are differentiated only by their degree of civilization; nothing is better suited than this living illustration to render more sensible the duties that these very differences impose on the most favoured peoples, and giving them on the other hand the right to exercise a right inseparable from the notion of responsibility.

The ways leading to the bringing together of peoples are multiple and various; one only, however, is the condition which makes them possible—the goodwill of the peoples who glory in no longer being mere groups of humans but, by reason of their culture, are able to understand each other in spite of the shades of difference which diversify their psychology, and make it possible to surmount, in the settlement of their differences, the immoderate appetites, selfishness, and petty jealousies that lurk at the bottom of human nature.

"Peace to men of goodwill." These are divine eternal words, launched two thousand years ago, yet always living

and new because they have never been fully understood and put into practice—words that have always aroused noble initiatives proving that humanity cannot be renounced, and preserves in the very depths of its collective soul the tenacious hope of better days to come.

The Seventh International Conference of Education proposes to study the means of promoting this goodwill. There can be no doubt that it will be able to add a stone to the edifice that men of goodwill and good sense are building to shelter future generations.

In this work there can be no small results. In the International Institute of Cinematography we know by experience that one can only advance along the good road with difficulty by overcoming constantly new obstacles; the essential point is not to abandon the positions conquered but to establish and maintain constant contact with those who are marching towards the same goal.

It is in this spirit that I give the Seventh World Education Conference the cordial greetings and best wishes for its success from the International Institute of Educational Cinematography, and invite the Conference to count upon the collaboration of the Institute in Rome for the execution of those resolutions which it may pass.

The Promotion of International Goodwill' through Visual Education

Mr. Jun Tsuchiya

Information Bureau, Foreign Office, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 527)

The Actual Situation of Educational Films in Germany

Dr. Zierold

*Head, Educational Bureau, Ministry
of Education, Germany*

Two years ago at the World Education Congress at Oxford I had the honour to report on educational films in Germany. The new organization had then been working for hardly a year. In the meantime two more years have passed and I dare say that we have made considerable progress.

My report found a friendly reception at Oxford. I, therefore, venture to presume that a short sketch of the actual situation of educational films in Germany will find your interest. Please regard what I am going to say as introductory remarks to the films which are going to be shown this afternoon. The films themselves will, I hope, give you an essential and clear insight into our work. Let me present to you, above all, the ideas which are fundamental for our efforts in regard to educational films.

1. The first point is a negative one: we think that "cultural films," "Kulturfilme," are not practical for use in schools. By "Kulturfilme" we mean a film destined for cinemas and played there as the introductory part of the regular programme. An educational film is a film produced along pedagogic principles exclusively for schools and with due consideration for the curriculum of the different types of schools. The relation of the "Kulturfilme" to the educational film corresponds to the relation of a popular feuilletonistic article in a newspaper to a scientific treatise or a school-book.

You can neither build up school instruction upon newspaper texts, nor can you, in the same sense, base instruction by film upon cultural films. I do not mean to say, however,

anything detrimental to the importance and necessity of the "cultural film" as such, but this point leads us to depreciate the use of the unadapted "cultural film" for schools. I think there is a general agreement on the necessity of using films specially prepared for schools, yet the point in question has until today very often been disregarded.

There are several reasons for such a discrepancy between theory and practice, probably above all is the financial reason: educational films must be specially produced, they require considerable financial means. Cultural films, on the other hand, are always at disposal and can be used at schools at relatively small expense.

Now I am convinced it is better not to use films at all in schools than to use inadequate films. The use of films of the latter sort is an unnecessary loss of time and an undesirable interruption of the regular instruction; in all, it discredits the idea of films. We have, therefore, made up our minds in Germany to dispense with the use of "cultural films" in the instruction at general schools. If, however, the theme and construction of a "cultural film" can be considered adequate for use in schools, it is transformed by a pedagogue into an educational film. But a "cultural film"—I must lay stress on this point—will never be used by German schools in the same form as shown at a cinema theatre.

2. The clear distinction between educational and cultural films brings out the characteristic features of the German educational films.

(a) *Length of educational films*

The German educational films always have the sub-standard breadth (16 mm.): the time of demonstration is not more than 10-12 minutes so that the film can be shown and explained within the ordinary lesson of 45 minutes duration. The themes of educational films must, therefore, be divided into several smaller themes.

(b) *Silent or sound-films*

Our ordinary educational films are silent films, principally for financial reasons. Sound-film and sound-film apparatus would cost about four times the amount of silent films. We,

therefore, deem it proper to wait with sound-films until all our schools are equipped with silent-film apparatus. Although we prefer silent films now, we do not entirely disregard the sound-film. On the contrary, we recognize the importance of sound-films wherever the sound, and optical aspect of the film form an entity. We shall show you this afternoon films where you see by means of Rontgen-photography a human heart working and where you hear the heart-sounds at the same time.

We regard as fundamentally inadequate for educational use only such sound-films where the sound gives nothing but musical accompaniment or explanations. Musical accompaniment might be justified if a film has for its purpose to give the pupil not only a certain knowledge but to arouse a certain emotion. Even there, however, music can in most cases be dispensed with. Accompanying explanations are always undesirable, because the functions of the teacher are thereby transferred to the film. The educational film should be an additional means of instruction for the teacher, but should not replace the teacher. Oral explanations are given only by the teacher.

(c) *Films and booklets*

The educational film is a method of education and should be regarded as equal to the other means of instruction which have proved good in the past, such as maps, physical apparatus, photography and diapositive pictures, etc. The film is not supposed to replace these old methods of instruction, which means that the film takes up only such themes which can only be presented by the film. This is the case only if motions and actions are to be shown or explained. We restrict our films to such theme which can and ought to be presented only by film; we try to reduce subtitles and explanations, etc., to a minimum and remove everything which is not real action to the explanatory booklet attached to every educational film. The teacher finds there explanations, statistics, literature, didactical advice, so that these booklets are an excellent means to help the teacher prepare instruction.

(d) *Structure of educational films*

The basic artistic principles of the educational films are the same as with films in general. The artistic points of view are supplemented decisively by pedagogic considerations, which have an important bearing upon the structure of the film. I give you one example; a means much used with ordinary films to arouse the interest in a given theme is to change the direction of the eye; the same object is shown from left, right, above and from below. For pedagogic reasons the exactly contrary method is applied with educational films; continuity of the direction of the eye is most necessary in order to insure proper orientation. It is often a very difficult problem with educational films to maintain the direction of the eye particularly with movements of longer duration or progressing from one place to another. There are some more considerations causing us to adapt purely artistic principles to pedagogic points of view. The whole work of the German educational film is concentrated in the government office of educational films, RFDU. This government office of educational films is a branch of the Reich's Ministry of Education. Its task is to provide all German schools and universities with substandard apparatus (i.e. 16 mm.) and to provide adequate films. For this purpose it can dispose of a fund of more than five million marks per annum, coming from direct contributions by pupils and university students. The educational films are produced with the collaboration of educationists, producers of films, and, as far as necessary, scientific specialists. Therefore, the government office of educational films does not produce the films itself but places an order with private producers, at the same time appointing a teacher as educational adviser. In this way, from the very start, pedagogic points of view are put into the foreground. The topics of the films are selected according to the requirements, which are adapted to the curricula laid down by the teachers of the different schools. With slight deviation, the above is also true of the scientific films. There, however, apart from the orders placed with private producers, the RFDU has its own filming staff and apparatus. These are put to the disposal of those professors of universities and

directors of scientific institutes, who want to get particular films. The selection of the scientific films is in no case centralized in any government office, but the film production can be freely decided by the individual professor. If he wants a scientific film produced for his own branch of study, the whole technical service of the RFDU is put at his disposal without charge. Among the scientific films there is a particular group of films which serve entirely the purpose of scientific investigations and research work—quite different from the task of ordinary educational films. The permanently increasing importance of the film for German science—and you will see this afternoon some of these research films—is to be explained first by the fact that by the means of the film any single movement can be fixed and reproduced at will, and second by the fact that the film also enables us to see movements that are usually invisible to the naked eye. This is achieved through the help of self-timing devices.

There are also other possibilities to be explored in combination with the microscope and X-ray apparatus. Some examples of this sort of film will also be shown to you this afternoon.

Finally, I will let you have some data in order to give you an impression of the amount of work in the government office of the educational film. This department has up to now provided about 65,000 German schools and universities with the following articles:

- about 17,000 substandard apparatus.

- about 100,000 substandard film-copies from about 300 particular educational films.

- about 200 new educational films to be ready in the near future.

The annual production also amounts to about 200 films. The monthly magazine of the RFDU "Film and Picture in Science and Education" is now printed in 15 to 17,000 copies and the explanatory booklets attached to the educational films are issued in about 3 million copies.

The tendencies of educational reform in present-day Germany are aimed not just at rendering school instruction

more concrete and realistic. We aim at visuality instead of abstraction. Here the mission of the educational film is essential. If we succeed in building up an instruction that is both vivid and true to life, we deliver a considerable contribution to the mutual understanding and peaceful collaboration of nations. Through the medium of school instruction the youngster gets his first impressions of foreign countries and peoples. First impressions are often decisions for a whole lifetime.

Misunderstandings or preconceived ideas, having been created in earliest youth, are often detrimentally effective in later life. Nothing can be more useful for the mutual understanding of nations than news pictures, if they are true, vivid, and fully representative of the countries they show. Here is an important and pleasant mission: to promote friendly collaboration in producing and exchanging films. Germany does not want to miss any opportunity to keep in this work.

Motion Pictures in Canada and International Relationships

Mr. John A. Cooper

*President, Motion Picture Distributors and
Exhibitors of Canada*

(Read by Mr. C. A. Kelly)

Some years ago, Sir Aubrey Symonds, K. C. B., Secretary of the British Board of Education, addressed a large audience at a meeting of the National Educational Association in Vancouver and rather startled that audience with a declaration that the cinema was having and would continue to have some effect upon international relations.

Previous to the delivery of that address some educationists and religious teachers in Canada had been inclined to regard motion pictures as a doubtful influence in the educational and entertainment life of Canada. The motion picture offered education and entertainment through a medium not controlled or directed by those accustomed to feel that all educational influences should be under their own guidance. They were inclined to regard this development as something to be received with suspicious watchfulness, especially as most of these pictures originated outside the borders of the Dominion.

During the five years that have elapsed since the delivery and circulation of Sir Aubrey's address, the writer is not aware of any notable educationist in Canada having delivered any opinion contrary to Sir Aubrey's. Indeed, there are indications that educationists, both secular and religious, have come to see that the motion picture can be most useful in increasing the knowledge of both youths and adults.

While tracing this changed mental attitude, it must be frankly admitted that the work of the International Cinematograph Institute, and the accomplishments of the British Film Institute and other educational organizations in the United Kingdom have not yet had any great influence in the Dominion of Canada. If the educationists have ceased to be antagonistic, they have not yet grown to be constructive in any large sense.

The National Film Society of Canada, organized recently to promote interest in educational film which does not find a place in the regular cinema, has, during the past year, given "shows" in eight separate urban centres. It has its most active branches in Montreal and Vancouver. In the latter city, seventy per cent of its membership is obtained in University circles. This movement, so far, is ineffective in any popular way.

The Dominion Government has always recognized the motion picture as an instrument for the publicizing of Canadian resources and commerce in other countries. In

the days of "silent" films, Canadian single-reelers were sent abroad to find their way into thousands of theatres and colleges in foreign countries. The advent of "sound", or talking films, made this work more difficult, but it is still being undertaken. One or two private agencies are also producing Canadian "shorts" which portray characteristic phases of Canada's life and activity.

Such international organizations as Canada possesses, such as the "Institute for Foreign Relations" and the "League of Nations Society in Canada", have not turned to the picture film as a vehicle for the dissemination of their propaganda. Such "international idea" films as have been distributed here have been largely of Russian or German origin, and have been distributed mainly through peace societies of one form or another. These have reached the public through the medium of 16 mm. safety film which can be shown in public halls, lodge rooms and other popular meeting places. The Canadian theatre has avoided the propaganda films with a definiteness which cannot be misunderstood.

Only recently Canada opened its doors freely to international films of an educational character. Under the lead of Geneva, the Canadian Government inserted the following item in its Customs Tariff in the year 1935:

"Educational films of all widths, silent or sound, positive or negative, and sound discs or records designed for use with such films, when certified by the Minister as entitled to exemption from custom duty under the Convention for Facilitating the International Circulation for Films of an Educational Character under regulations by the MinisterFree."

Canadian theatres or cinemas have a distinctly international tendency in their programmes. It could not be otherwise because, aside from the small production of "shorts" already mentioned, there is no Canadian picture-making. The Canadian theatre, therefore, relies upon importations from Great Britain, France and the United States. Almost all imported "short subjects" come from the latter

country, but the importation of "feature pictures" in the calendar year 1936 was as follows:

United States Features	425	75%
British Features	35	6%
French Features	<u>111</u>	19%
	571	

It must be observed in this connection that only about fifty theatres out of a total of one thousand use French pictures regularly.

Canada finds the American picture most popular, for many reasons. The two countries have a common language, a common literature and much the same regard for democratic ideals. The fact that one is a Republic and the other a Monarchy presents no obstacle in this respect.

This situation is rendered very easy, because the United States pictures are made largely for English-speaking countries and not purely for home consumption. As forty per cent of U. S. motion picture "rentals" are received from foreign countries, mainly British, the keenness of United States producers to please audiences in Great Britain, Canada, Australia and South Africa is understandable. The notable dramas of England find a leading place in United States programmes; "Charge of the Light Brigade," "Lloyds of London," "Cavalcade," "Lives of a Bengal Lancer," "Romeo and Juliet," current works by Kipling, Wells, and Shaw—all these American productions satisfy the patriotic feelings of Canadians to such an extent that they seldom ask whether a picture was produced in London or in Los Angeles, in Elstree or in Hollywood. With most of them "the play is the thing," whether it comes from one country or the other. "Marie Antoinette," "Life of Louis Pasteur," "Richelieu" or "Rembrandt" may remind them of non-English speaking countries, but they know they are being entertained by an English interpretation, whether it comes across the Rocky Mountains by train or across the Atlantic by ship.

As pictures come to Canada largely from the United States, it is natural that any movement in that country

looking to a scientific study and use of this form of entertainment is likely to flow over into this country. The work done by Carl E. Milliken, Secretary of the "Hays" organization and director of its "Community Service Department," is known to many Canadian educationists. What he has done in promoting the study of photoplay appreciation among teachers of English, among community clubs and women's organizations is known to a few Canadian leaders. His publications, such as "The Motion Picture and the Family" and "Secrets of Success" Series, have been "sampled" in this country. For some years small editions of these publications and others have been mailed regularly to a selected list of the Canadians who have shown an interest in photoplay appreciation. Through this influence, community organizations have given considerable study to current pictures and have acquired certain standards by which pictures may be analyzed and appreciated. The studies of photoplays made by the National Education Association of the United States, the Progressive Education Association, and other bodies have been contemporaneously helpful. The Eastman Teaching Films, edited by Dr. Finegan, have been sampled here. This overflow of ideas and study results must eventually have some effect upon the educational mind of this country. Already there are signs that school-teachers and parent organizations are attempting to meet current needs by equipping themselves to furnish children and young people with picture guidance.

Fortunately for the motion picture art, while these educational changes were taking place, the motion picture producers made tremendous advances in the quality of their product. The resources of these European producers have been limited, and they have not been able to progress as rapidly as the leading Hollywood producers. Yet, for practical purposes, there is no difference among the countries in their ideals and hopes for their favourite art. So in Canada, the people have responded to the growing quality of the photoplays. The critics now come to praise and not to scoff. The professional drafter of condemnatory resolutions has passed to other fields of

activity—teachers are delighted to recommend "Midsummer Night's Dream," "The Good Earth," or "The Country Doctor," the latter based upon the story of Canada's quintuplets. The teachers find something in even lighter productions to recommend them, such as "Three Smart Girls," "Maytime" and other musicales and comedies.

Such lists of pictures as are circulated in this country are intended largely for the benefit of adult patrons of the photoplay. The producer does not make use of such teachers' publications as exist to make known the qualities of those plays which would appeal to students of literature and to teachers who are looking for selective pictures which they can recommend. Whether the responsibility for disseminating this kind of information should rest on the producer of the photoplay or upon the educational authorities is a moot question. Perhaps it is safe to assume that the responsibility rests on both.

When the producer issues a picture, such as "Les Misérables" or "A Midsummer Night's Dream," it would seem advisable that teachers' and students' journals should receive special information as to the character of the production with an explanation as to why it should appeal to students of literature. There may have been a time when such publicity would tend to diminish audience-appeal rather than increase. If that ever was the case the time seems to have passed away. Where teachers and students are photoplay conscious, it would seem to be sound business to supply these classes with such information as is contained in "Group Discussion Guides," published by Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., of Newark, N.J., and "Students' Study Guide" for individual pictures as published by Columbia University. No doubt some of these guides find their way into Canadian classrooms but there seems to be a need for something of the same character prepared for Canadian consumption.

In this work of informing the public concerning standard photoplays and those of international significance, the public library may also play a very considerable part. There

have been considerable developments along this line in the United States, but less in Canada.

The future of motion pictures for entertainment purposes, for classroom purposes, for general education and for the promotion of international goodwill is not to be lightly predicted. One can merely assert that if the progress of this art in the next twenty years is at all comparable with that of the past twenty years, the world will then be decidedly photoplay-minded.

After this, in proposing in motion, Mr. Masakazu Oka (*Director, Victor Talking Machine Company of Japan, Ltd.*) said: "I thank you for giving me the pleasure to speak a few minutes. I should like to take this opportunity to make a motion that the present name of Visual Education Section be changed to the Audio-Visual Education Section. The reasons are as follows: It is no longer proper to call this section by its present name, because it embraces gramophones and records which are, as you know, extensively used for educational purposes, as shown in our reports. In other countries as well, gramophones and records are being used in schools to help education, particularly in teaching languages, gymnastic exercises, and for other cultural purposes. This fact shows that gramophones and records play rather important parts in education. Hence the name of this Section ought to be such as will pay due regards to gramophones and records, or other means of audible instruction. Another reason is that motion pictures themselves are no longer merely visible, for most of them are talking motion pictures now. Therefore, this Section should be renamed, as proposed, so that it can rightfully embrace motion pictures and magic lanterns, as well as gramophones and records, and furthermore television in future. If, however, there are any difficulties in altering the present name, I wish to establish an independent section to take care of audible education.

Mr. Chairman and Delegates, I wish you would give special consideration to the subject and support the motion

I have made."

Mr. Chairman: "Are there any comments on this motion?"

The motion was *carried*.

Film Demonstration

August 5th, 2 p.m.-4:30 p.m.

The following films were introduced by

Dr. Helen Miller Bailey

(Manual Arts High School, California U. S. A.):

1. Exchange of Friendship on the Pacific.
2. Cyclists' Travel through France.

The following films were presented by the German Embassy:

3. Die Wasserspinne—Ein Biologischer Unterrichtsfilm.
4. Gewittervorgänge—Ein Meteorologische Unterrichtsfilm.
5. Die Entstehung einer Kurve—Ein Mathematischer Unterrichtsfilm.
6. Beschuss von Drähten und Panzerplatten—Ein Physikalischer Unterrichtsfilm.
7. Ruckschreitende Erosion und Entstehung von Erdpyramiden—Ein Geologischer Unterrichtsfilm.
8. Beiträge zur Entwicklungsgeschichte der Tiere—Ein Biogenetischer Unterrichtsfilm.
9. Bewegung des Schultergelenks und des Ellbogengelenks—Ein Medizinischer Röntgen-Unterrichtsfilm.
10. Sprache und Sprechwerkzeuge. Herzbewegung und Herztöne—Ein Medizinischer Röntgen-Unterrichtsfilm mit synchroner Ton-Aufnahme.

Second Session

The following film demonstrations were given 9 a.m.-3:30 p.m.:

1. Mt. Zawa.
2. Mystery of Woods.
3. Life of the Cicada.
4. How Dolls Are Made.
5. Salmon.
6. Japanese Pottery.
7. Ultra Speed Film.
8. X-Ray Film.
9. Black Sun.
10. Elementary Schools in Tokyo.
11. Mikuni no Sakae.

(Interval)

12. Asahi News Reel.
13. Three Weeks' Trip.
14. Kojo no Tsuki.
15. Juvenile Songs and Japanese Dances.
(Using the Gramophone.)

Third Session

Film Education in Japan

Baron Takeru Yamakawa

*Director, Bureau of Social Education, Department of
Education, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 534)

Visual Education in the Philippines

Mr. Solomon V. Arnaldo

Professor, University of the Philippines, Manila, P. I.

Visual education in the Philippines is one of the many phases of our national life which is just beginning to be stirred into a nation-wide movement under the impetus of the first two years of our recently established Commonwealth. Not that visual education has not been known and practised in the Philippines before the present Commonwealth Period. It should be remembered that even before the Spaniards came to rule the Philippines in 1521, we already had a culture of our own, and the visual method, so evident especially in our early religions, marriage, and royal rites and ceremonies, and in our ancient syllabic writing, was only one of the many ways in which the education and culture of our ancestors were enhanced and perpetuated from generation to generation. But with the Commonwealth Period, there is a marked and strong eagerness to revitalize, organize, intensify,

and rationalize all projects that will contribute to the strength and culture of our young nation, and one of these many projects on hand is the extension and popularization of visual education throughout the length and breadth of our Archipelago.

Naturally enough, in the present status of visual education in the Philippines, there is much to be desired, much to be revived and reconstructed in our national fabric due to the long and telling years of Spanish and, presently, of American influence on our own native culture. There is much to be learned here in this World Conference from countries more advanced along this line for inspiration which can be adapted to our own people. For ours is a very young nation—still in its swaddling clothes when it comes to Western ways, compared to many more progressive countries in visual education like Japan and Germany.

It is the aim of this paper, therefore, simply to relate actual conditions in the Philippines along the line of visual education in its multifarious forms, not only in the field of motion pictures, with the end in view, not of offering it as a contribution to the advancement of this particular method of education, but of presenting it as a brief survey of a field in which our country has made little progress and in which other countries may be able to help us with their more advanced and effective methods. As a matter of record, it would be interesting to know by this survey how far, in a way, the effectiveness and influence of this Seventh World Conference can go in bringing light and progress to countries far behind others in the next two years before the Eighth Conference convenes in 1939.

Visual education in the Philippines is being carried on by four large groups of agencies, namely: (1) the Government proper, particularly the Department of Public Instruction and the Department of Agriculture and Commerce; (2) educational institutions such as schools, colleges, universities, and libraries; (3) commercial firms and establishments, including motion picture corporations; and (4) patriotic, cultural, civic, religious, scientific, and other allied societies

and organizations.

These agencies, conscious of the power of the eye in transmitting information and knowledge, especially of better and happier living, employ various visual aids in attaining their respective purposes. These means may be enumerated as follows:

1. Excursions with a purpose and educational tours.
2. Exhibits, displays, fairs or expositions, models or representations.
3. Demonstrations.
4. Illustrated lectures, lantern slides.
5. Posters, pictures, picture-news, and graphic illustrations.
6. Classroom aids.
7. Pageants and tableaux vivants.
8. Plays, especially school plays, the Passion Play, and the "Moro-Moro" plays.
9. Folk dances, which idealize labour and traditions.
10. Motion pictures.

1. *Excursions with a purpose and educational tours.* Excursions are a regular feature of extra-curricular activities of schools, colleges, and universities in the Philippines. They are travels in miniature, affording those who attend opportunities to see provinces or islands other than their own at comparatively low costs, and helping them in the study of various subjects such as geography, as when they cross rivers, bays, and small seas, or climb mountains; biology, as when they study the plants and animals of particular localities; architecture, as when they visit prominent buildings; astronomy, as when they visit the Weather Bureau or when they go out into the open night to study the moon and the stars; industrial and commercial, as when they visit factories and newspaper plants; art, as when they visit a museum or a gallery; etc. By these excursions into other provinces or islands, those who join also come to know their countrymen speaking dialects other than their own by means of the English language, which is the official language of the Philippines, thereby strengthening national ties and

loyalties.

It is of interest to note here that educational tours among students in the Far East are getting popular in the Philippines, thanks to the timely initiative of Japan. For the last two or three years there have been such tours to Japan from the Philippines and to the Philippines from Japan, and the results have been most happy in the betterment of cultural and friendly relations between the two countries. Credit for this movement should be given particularly to the Kokusai Bunka Shinkokai (Society for International Cultural Relations), the Japan Information Bureau of Manila, the Japanese Student Association, the University of the Philippines Student Council, and the Philippine-Japan Society.

2. *Exhibits, displays, fairs or expositions, models or representations.* Exhibits and displays are of various kinds. They may pertain to history, art, science, industries, costumes, health, books, plant culture. The public at large is invited to these exhibits and displays which are usually held on special occasions such as the closing school exercises; school, college, or university anniversaries; national holidays and holy days as during the XXXIII International Eucharistic Congress held in Manila this year.

In this connection the regular exhibits of the following organizations should be noted; the University of the Philippines' President's Committee on Culture, School of Fine Arts, General Library, Library Club, and National Heroes' Day Committee; the Philippine Library Association's Book Week Committee; the National Library; and the Philippines Carnival Exposition.

These exhibits are generally free, except in very rare instances, as in the Philippine Carnival Exposition which is held annually in Manila where a charge of twenty centavos for adults and ten centavos for children is made at the entrance gate to the Carnival grounds. In this national exposition, the various provinces of the Archipelago present their agricultural and industrial products in attractive booths that compete for prizes during the entire period of the ex-

From these exhibits the people gain a very representative economic picture of each of the participating provinces, and this knowledge of economic geography helps much in the promotion and encouragement in certain regions of local trades and industries, particularly those dealing with lumber, copra, abaca, kapok (cotton), ration, sugar, embroidery and cloth-weaving.

Models or representations of ideal communities are particularly used by the Bureau of Health for purposes of educating the masses in sanitation and healthy living. These models may be of clay or sand, with miniature houses in nipa, bamboo, and wood built on them, and are very effective in attracting people as well as instructing them.

3. *Demonstrations.* In this particular field, such Government entities as the Bureau of Education, Bureau of Science, the Bureau of Plant Industry, the Bureau of Animal Husbandry, and the Bureau of Health are most active. There is a wide range of subject-matter in these demonstrations covering as they do such subjects as cooking, care of mothers and infants, first aids, sanitary methods, prevention of diseases, grafting (in plants), ham-making, utilization for food of agricultural wastes like husks of palay (rice), sack-making, and many other domestic and practical occupations. By these means the Government itself comes down from its pedestal to help the people in every way it possibly can within its means to promote progressive living especially in rural districts.

4. *Illustrated lectures, lantern slides.* This method is gaining popularity in our country. Educational institutions and civic, cultural, scientific, religious, and welfare societies and organizations are employing illustrated lectures with increasing success. The University of the Philippines, the National Research Council of the Philippines, the Philippine Scientific Society, the Philippine Islands Medical Association, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Catholic Women's League, the Office of Adult Education, the Boy Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls' organizations, and the Bureau of Health are most

active along this line. In its extension work especially, the Bureau of Health uses "healthmobiles" which go from province to province where there are town fiestas, to give free illustrated lectures and demonstrations to the public. In the case of the Bureau of Education, community assemblies are organized throughout the Islands, and illustrated lectures on almost all subjects are given free to the public by specialists or prominent men in the community or in the Government.

The use of lantern slides, however, is still very limited. The high cost of slides and photography in the Philippines and the need of more facilities for projection are factors in this limited use. But whenever a lantern-slide programme is announced, there is always a capacity crowd on hand. This is especially true when noted scholars and travelers stay for a while in the Philippines to lecture by the aid of slides which they carry along with them. At present, therefore, our country is still very far behind many countries in the production and popularization of lantern slides. Efforts, however, are being made, especially by the University of the Philippines and, recently, by the Young Women's Christian Association to contact educational, cultural, and scientific societies abroad in order that we may be able to borrow, rent, or purchase pictures, slides, and films for the purpose of popular education. Here, perhaps, is where other countries may help us most substantially in the cause, not only of education, but also of international understanding and friendship.

5. *Posters, pictures, picture news, and graphic illustrations.*

As a means of arousing immediate public attention and response to any event or movement—educational and otherwise—posters, pictures, picture news, and graphic illustrations are perhaps the easiest to be understood and the best to get results. But while this means may be already ancient history in many countries, it is in the Philippines just beginning to be appreciated as a medium of popular instruction. Thus, local poster makers and illustrators are also just beginning to be in demand by educational agencies, especially by the Bureau of Education and the Bureau of Health. In this con-

nection, mention may be made of the poster-making contests and poster exhibits under the auspices of the Department of Library Science, the Library Club, and the National Heroes' Day Committee, all of the University of the Philippines; and the Philippine Library Association.

In pure picture news, the field has been touched only recently, with the publication of our first picture magazine entitled *Photo-News*, which came out only on July 15 of this year, just a couple of weeks before this Seventh World Conference began here in Tokyo. The field is thus wide open and rich for similar enterprises.

As for graphic illustrations, the Bureau of Health offers an excellent example of their use in disseminating to the public knowledge of vital statistics, especially in certain diseases and epidemics.

6. *Classroom aids.* Visual aids in the schools are, of course, very numerous, depending on the subjects taught. An enumeration and description of them would only be a tiresome process, but it will be sufficient for our present purpose to say that such visual aids as sand tables, clay models, aquariums, terrariums, class museums, maps, pictures, graphs, globes, puppets, and countless other objects are to be found in Philippine schools to supplement textbooks and to make instruction more effective. But one prominently and internationally modern visual aid for class and school purposes is miserably lacking, and that is motion pictures, which will be dealt with toward the end of this paper. This lack of motion pictures in schools is perhaps responsible in a way for the slow advance of the educational programme of the Philippines.

7. *Pageants, tableaux vivants.* Our people are lovers of the dramatic and the festive, of processions, which are frequent in the Philippines, and of pageantry. Pageants and tableaux vivants, therefore, occupy a prominent place in large festivals and celebrations. For subjects they take inspiration from our history, from our legends from our ancient tradition from our modern life in its various phases—agricultural educational religious, political, economic, and

social. The University of the Philippines is noted for its historical and patriotic pageants as well as for those that call for performance on a large scale, which are usually held during the Philippine Carnival Exposition in Manila. For pageants and tableaux vivants that inspire love of traditions and of things distinctly our own, the Philippine Women's University, the Instituto de Mujeres, and the Centro Escolar de University are unexcelled.

8. *Plays, especially school plays, the Passion Play, and the "Moro-Moro" plays.* Plays are a popular feature of classroom and extra-curricular activities. The dramatization of the day's story or news forms an integral part of kindergarten and elementary education. But because many of the plays utilized are American or European in origin and conception, it is regrettable to note that Philippine school children often know more of foreign legends and characters than they do of their own country and people. The recent nationalization, however, of most of these materials is slowly overcoming this discrepancy in our educational programme.

Of the community plays, the Passion Play and the "Moro-Moro" plays are the most interesting. The Passion Play, popularly known in the Philippines as "*senákulo*," as its name implies, is the life story of Christ from birth to crucifixion. It is interesting to note here that during Passion Week, many communities in the Philippines, especially those in the provinces, constitute themselves as so many Oberammergau to re-enact freely to the public the life, death, and resurrection of Christ. The play begins at around nine or ten o'clock in the evening and lasts till past midnight into the wee hours of the morning, and is continued for several nights until the story is completed. Because it is held outdoors, the people—men, women, and children—bring their own benches or stools to the scene of the performance long before starting time, or simply watch from their windows if they are near the stage, which is usually an impromptu device made of wood and bamboo. The players, selected from the members of the community or invited from neighbouring towns, re-enact and sing the wonderful story according

to the text of the Passion Book which is in the vernacular language and which is written in verse. The Passion Play in the Philippines is an old institution, and has its beginnings in the eighteenth century. Through it the illiterate masses especially get a good knowledge of the life and passion of Christ, of the Holy Land, of Roman rulers and soldiers, of the Bible, and of such virtues as chastity, humility, obedience, and piety. Through it also, the people learn many moral lessons in verse form which they proudly repeat from memory whenever occasions for them arise.

The "Moro-Moro" is another community play. It is, however, already in its twilight and may soon pass away forever unless efforts are made to revive and perpetuate it. This play is usually held during town fiestas which are very numerous throughout the Philippines since nearly every town has its own patron saint. It is called a "Moro-Moro" because there is always in it, besides the love story, a fight with swords between the Christians and the Moors or Moros in which, for religious purposes, the Christians always win in the end. With a foreign background which is somewhere in Europe, and dating some two or more centuries back, the players wear elaborate, colourful, and expensive costumes as befit kings, queens, princes, princesses, noblemen, knights, and soldiers. In a recent "Moro-Moro" play which the present writer attended a few days before coming to this World Conference, the people of the little town of Parañaque, Rizal, which gave it, spent around a thousand pesos for costumes alone. Held in the open-air, like the "senákulo," it has a large stage, which in some cases is on the ground but naturally higher than the ground occupied by the audience, so that even a player on horseback may circle around the stage without danger of the stage falling to pieces. Through these "Moro-Moro" plays, which are plays by the people, in which high and low participate, the masses come to learn something of geography, as represented by names of kingdoms, rivers, mountains, and oceans in which the characters are supposed to live and travel and fight against the Moors. They also come to learn something of the customs, manners,

and costumes of these people. And in addition, they come to appreciate native country which is the language of these plays.

I shall not mention here under this topic the legitimate stage which includes professional and amateur plays, operas, and "zarzuelas," which are the Philippine equivalents for operas, because, while they also might fall in a very general way under visual education, they belong more properly to another subject.

9. *Folk dances.* It is a most happy fortune that in spite of four centuries of Spanish rule and almost four decades of American sovereignty, the Philippines has not lost entirely its ancient custom, languages, and traditions. Still surviving in the age-long conflict between Western cultures and our own, are certain beautiful folk ways and heritages which we Filipinos can call distinctly our own. Among the most loved of these patrimonies which have come down through the ages unimpaired, are the folk dances of country and mountain life, which some members of the American delegation to this World Conference saw in their brief stay in Manila. Folk dances embody the culture and history and labour of a people. They are a beautiful memory connecting in fragile beauty the living present to the almost forgotten past. They idealize one's native land, they idealize labour, they idealize history and traditions. In the performance of these dances, therefore, whether in the rain-soaked or gold-flooded harvest fields, in church yards and plazas or on modern theatre stages, we cannot but feel a surging love of all that means our own in the midst of conflicting influences. They are a kind reminder of all that is lovely and good and noble and pure and happy and free in our history and in our country.

Because these folk dances are passing away, efforts have been made recently by the University of the Philippines to revive and perpetuate them. The results have been most gratifying, and the University of the Philippines has not only finally recorded much of their music and transcribed their steps but has also included their study in the regular curriculum, and sponsors their performances on many occasions.

schools these folk dances are special features of almost every programme they put on.

10. *Motion Pictures.* When it comes to purely educational and cultural motion pictures in the Philippines, silence on our part is perhaps the better attitude, for compared with what other countries like Japan, Germany, and the United States are doing magnificently along these lines, the Philippines is for the present simply an interested and eager spectator in the crowd. Not that motion pictures which inform and instruct are lacking in the Philippines, for we have of course up-to-date first-class pictures from the United States and England, but that the purely educational and cultural films, distinct from the commercial films and designed for school purposes and mass education, are just beginning to be attempted in our country. We look for leadership in this and in other fields today to more progressive countries.

Commercial films shown in the Philippines are mostly of outside origin, for about eighty-five per cent are American, two per cent British, three per cent Spanish, and ten per cent Philippine. Of local film producers, there are only two or three, notably the Philippine Films Corporation and the Parlatone Corporation. Their output, however, is limited almost entirely to fiction films. And the production of news-reels and films purely of the educational and cultural type is still something to be encouraged and promoted, perhaps even subsidized by the Government. The commercial films of foreign origin are more worthy of mention in this matter because the number of news-reels, travelogues, and some educational and scientific films, constitutes a high percentage of the total importation, if not actually more than that of fiction films. But the use of films for purely class or school work, it is regrettable to say, has not yet been realized in the Philippines. It is still a matter for consideration and experiment.

For the protection of the general public, for the release only of worth-while pictures, and for the cutting of objectionable portions of films which are otherwise acceptable, there

is in the Philippines a Board of Censorship for Motion Pictures, which previews all films before they are finally shown in public theatres.

From this hasty survey of visual education in the Philippines in its various aspects, it is very evident that in the more modern trend of visual education through motion pictures and lantern slides, the Philippines shall be noted in this Section more for what it does *not* have rather than for what it has. But perhaps an extension loan of materials from the demonstrating countries in our sessions in this World Conference, or perhaps some other more agreeable arrangement, will give the much needed impetus to the promotion and popularization of the purely educational and cultural films and lantern slides in the Philippines, not only for class and school purposes but also for mass education in our own national culture and for international friendship and goodwill.

We are looking forward to this opportunity with much anticipation, for we know only too well that we of the Philippine delegation came here to this World Conference empty-handed, but are confident that we shall go back to our country abundantly happy with what we have seen and heard in and outside its session halls.

Visual Education in the Public Schools of Washington, D.C.

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The public schools of Washington, D.C., have for a number of years recognized the importance of utilizing the visual sense to a far greater degree in the learning process. Emphasis has been given to efforts to increase realism and to get away from verbalism by all such means as may be available. Given more opportunity for actual experience with school journeys, construction projects, and the handling and manipulations of objects, we are eager to use the accepted types of visual education which are incorporated in both intra-mural and extra-mural activity. The use of various kinds of still and motion pictures is now considered as of essential rather than supplementary importance. Those older types of non-mechanical aid, such as maps, the black-board, the bulletin board, charts and graphs, continue to be used with effect, and should not be abandoned because of projected pictures which are becoming more popular. Considerable progress has been made in Washington in vitalizing instruction with the newer types of visual aid, primarily in the classrooms but also in assembly meetings. It is the effort of the Washington teachers to so incorporate the use of visual materials with other methods that their use shall be an integral part of the process and not a superficial coating by merely exposing pupils to illustrative materials. The latter practice is condemned as being of doubtful value and as missing rich opportunities to seize upon all of the essence which lies in the motion pictures and lantern slides which have been produced and organized in accordance with the best educational and photographic standards. Critical

analysis of available material is given, before purchase is made, of what shall constitute a central library of those visual educational materials as are distributed upon call. We are so concerned with encouraging and facilitating the wide use of visual methods, and are continually pointing out their value, to both in-service and student teachers, that it is the responsibility of each teacher to determine not only whether some visual aid may enhance learning in a given situation, but also which type or types of visual materials are the best source for that particular situation. Teachers are becoming sensitive to this kind of individual responsibility. No supervisor nor manual can absolutely direct the choice or methodology to be used. There must be flexibility in adapting available material to the ability of different classes and to the differing situations. It is felt in Washington that teacher-training along these lines is a field calling for more attention. Development of categorical skill in making the most valuable use of various types of visual instruction is extremely essential. A sense of grading and the effective use of those ideas which are in the mechanically projected group cannot be made, unless the teacher is a master of the tool. Much attention has been given to helping teachers to gain actual skill in projection technique. Teachers becoming independent of outsiders in meeting their projection problems have accomplished most worthy results in making the use of these types of visual aid really fruitful.

It is difficult to integrate fairly this skill in projection technique with other procedures. The visual instruction library serving the public schools in Washington has had slow but steady growth during the past dozen years. It now comprises approximately 30,000 lantern slides and more recently 440 reels of silent motion picture films on 194 different subjects, practically all of the collection being of the sixteen millimetre width. The subject matter in both sections mentioned includes science, geography, history, art, health and hygiene, music, and literature. Facilities and the staff for this library are not adequate to handle exhibits and mounted pictures as well as in some other cities. The Public

Library of Washington, however, with its excellent and expensive collection of mounted pictures has long served public, private, and parochial schools. With weekly delivery service available from the Visual Education Library to each school, a teacher planning well in advance may receive at the right time those available aids chosen for proper correlation.

Unfortunately the growth of the library which has been possible has not kept pace with the increasing demand made upon it by teachers. All schools are now equipped with at least one projector for lantern slides. Less than 70 % of the schools have been furnished with a classroom projector for silent films. A beginning has been made in some of the secondary schools in acquiring the equipment for sound films. Their use has made it unwise to begin yet to include sound films in the central library. Expenditures are planned to serve the largest number of pupils. Users of sound equipment must rent or borrow films.

It is the belief of those giving careful study to the matter that all children are rapidly becoming sound film conscious, but they will continue to seek value in the silent film. It is the opinion of many that it is not the visual sense alone which can develop a greater degree of interest and study, but a combination of both the visual and the auditory senses. This, of course, varies with the subject matter and with the ability of the students. A significant contribution has already been made to education by the utilization of the visual method. If further attention is given to the production of better materials and to putting more of them within reach, a still wider influence on educational progress will be felt. The tax-payer and the administrator must learn that it is better economy to invest in this direction than to deny children the hardly realized potentiality in the visual-auditory field.

How Gramophones Are Used for the Appreciation of Music

Mr. Takesi Inoue

*Teacher, Attached Elementary School, Tokyo Higher
Normal School, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 539)

On Education by Means of Films, as Given in the Nagoya Iida Elementary School

Miss Takako Adachi

*Teacher, Nagoya-Shi Iida Elementary School,
Nagoya, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 541)

A Cure of Dialects by Means of Gramophone Records

Mr. Masayoshi Oda

Teacher, Sannomaru Elementary School, Mito, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 544)

The Magic Lantern in Education

Mr. Tsutae Doto

Instructor, Tokyo Higher Normal School, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 555)

Gramophone Education in Japan

Mr. Nobuhiko Nishiwaki

*Committee on Gramophone Education,
Visual Education Section, Seventh
World Conference, W.F.E.A.*

(See Vol. V, P. 558)

Statistical Report on Visual Education

Mr. Tsunekichi Midzuno

*Supervisor of Social Education, Department of
Education, Tokyo, Japan*

(See Vol. V, P. 562)

Election of Officers

The Section elected as Chairman

Mr. F. Bassett

and as Secretary

Miss B. L. Dore

Contributed Paper

**The Cinema as a Factor of Visual
Education**

Polish Organization Committee

Man perceives the outside world by means of his five senses, chief of which is sight. His conceptions and opinions are based on those perceptions; his feelings and volitions embody his reactions to them. In this way the perceptions derived from the outside world make up man's individuality. Visual education constitutes an essential element of this influence which is particularly powerful in forming the mind of children and of the not highly educated masses. The image of the outside world conceived by adults with a superior education extends much further than their visual perceptions, which, however, do not lose their privileged position.

The horizon of visual perception is really very limited, although its magnitude depends on the environments in which a given individual lives. For instance, it will be broader with the inhabitants of a town than with country folk. Film exerts a powerful influence in extending it and has thereby become one of the most potent factors of visual education. Impressions received by the audience necessarily become part of their life experience. On the whole, man does not easily distinguish actual observations from sight suggestions afforded by the almost real world of the film. If we bear in mind that the conceptions of children and crowds are based on things actually seen, and not on intellectual speculation, we shall understand the importance of the cinema in the making up of mental attitude. The way in which the subject is presented, which depends far more on the producer than on the public, is no less effective in forming the individuality of the audience than the vision of the world

reaching their eyes through the medium of the screen. The concentration of attention on given fragments of the imaginary world of films, the time devoted to the observation of objects: the standpoint from which they are viewed—all are controlled by the producer and not by the public. Moreover, the uninterrupted progression of the pictures, their fugitiveness, make it impossible to indulge in their contemplation, in interrupting their perception or in unrestrained reflection. This is the reason why films possess exceptional opportunities to control the mental attitude of the audience. Absorbed as they are by looking at the pictures, they are allowed much less time and possibility of criticism than readers of novels, or people who look at real facts, or at a piece being acted on the stage. These peculiarities of cinematographic production must be borne in mind when considering it as a factor of visual education. We shall, therefore, proceed to discuss in turn: (A) the way in which the world is presented in the pictures and, (B) the vision of the world afforded by films. (A) In our study of this aspect of the question we shall first try to discover how cinematographic pictures can influence our way of looking at things. A careful scrutiny of this question shows that they can teach us:

(1) Carefully to observe things which we had often seen before, but which had escaped our attention. Many a cinema amateur will own that he first realized the beauty of snow-covered trees, the romance of town roofs, and the charm of cattle grazing on a pasture by looking at their respective images.

(2) To contemplate things from new, more varied and unexpected points of view, thanks to alterations in perspective and rhythm, isolation of details, curtailments, enlargements or reduction. Owing to the rapid succession of cinematographic images, the spectator will easily note that the same object looks differently in the distance or near, seen from above, below or sideways. If, for instance, a person looks at a crowd, he cannot so easily shift his point of observation as is done on the screen.

(3) To find out what is worth seeing in unknown environments, thus training future tourists.

(4) A quicker taking in of things and quicker mental processes, which are indispensable to understand what is going on, to guess the subtlest meanings of the acting and of the action, to trace causes out of their results, earlier events out of later ones and vice versa, to understand symbols and allegories, not to lose touch with the main story in spite of several stories being interwoven and the succession of pictures not being necessarily the same as the succession of events. Consequently the film develops to a certain extent the intelligence of spectators.

(5) Better to understand mimics, gesticulation and expression, "seeing" the inner life of the human individual as expressed by gestures and reflexes of his body. Thanks to enlargement, the film allows to look into the human face far more closely than it is possible to do either in life or at the theatre, even with the best glasses. The restrictions imposed on their vocabulary compel film actors to take full advantage of mimics and gesticulation, whereas the necessity of quick action makes it necessary for the producer to bring out the character of the heroes by means of physiognomics.

(6) To understand the aspects of nature, inanimated objects, the appeal of landscapes, the character of human dwellings. Pictures almost compel the audience to feel the phantastic charm of night in a forest, the power of wind and storm, the awe of threatening clouds, the serenity of some landscape, the severity and sadness of others, the solitude lurking in some human dwellings, the homely happiness emanating from others.

(7) An esthetical perception of external objects which requires that the object contemplated should be isolated from its background, alone or with its closest surroundings. Cinematographic pictures are always isolated as the screen is surrounded by darkness and the audience looks at images of real things "as if they were pictures," i.e., as if they were objects of imagination reproduced graphically.

(8) Better to discriminate neutral colours, to see the world colourless and yet in a different aspect, endowed with its own esthetical values.

(9) To profit by new source of esthetical experience provided by a composition of plastical forms which the film alone can afford. These new sources consist in the shapes and nuances of objects projected on the screen, their succession, the way in which some appear and others disappear, the distribution of light and shade, the whirling of surfaces and forms, the rhythm of changes appearing on the screen, the simultaneity or discrepancy of pictures and sounds.

(10) To delight in the composition of pictures giving a characteristic image of, for instance, morning in a wood, the atmosphere of a large town, work in a mine, life in a remote oceanic island. A judicious selection of episodes, their succession, contrast and rhythm, their symbolical interpretation may constitute an inexhaustible source of esthetical pleasure for the audience.

(11) To take pleasure in imaginary visions emerging from darkness: a stampede of horses, a swarming of aeroplanes; to delight in the dynamics of motion which come out in films incomparably better than in other arts; to feel their rhythmical values which often synchronize with the music. The new form of beauty proclaimed by the futurists—speed—is brought out in cinematographic art in a manner that cannot be attempted by other means.

(12) To be more exacting in our choice of esthetical objects by its selection of landscapes, masses or individuals in motion, objects of art, human figures, etc., and by advocating new artistic values in interior decoration, clothes, architecture, etc.

The cinema can teach us all that and many other things as well, but the question arises whether it actually does it. That chiefly depends on the producer but also—to a certain extent—on the spectator. If the latter is entirely engrossed with the story of the picture, he becomes doubly colour-blind, not only because he does not see colours on the screen, but also because he misses many essential qualities of the film. To him a moving picture ceases to be a tonic requiring mental alertness, and merely becomes a narcotic giving momentary oblivion and nothing more—or at least nothing of value.

In contrast to benefits just enumerated, the way pictures are looked at can also result in unfavourable educational influences. Let us examine a few of them.

(1) Shortness of time compels the producers to simplify action to the extreme. This circumstance may result in developing restlessness in the onlooker, who becomes unable to stand the slower developments of a drama or a novel. A reader of this kind will peruse novels, read only the most important episodes or limit himself to short stories.

(2) The speed with which the film is projected does not allow of dwelling on perceptions. We would often like to contemplate a picture a little longer but it vanishes after having played its part in the "continuous" esthetical object. This impossibility of contemplation teaches us to look cursorily at beautiful things and, in the cinema itself, to assume a very primitive attitude towards the screen, not looking for artistic values but exciting anecdotes.

(3) The cinema spoils the spontaneity of our first contacts. Looking at the world at large does not remain without impairing the sharpness of the reaction of youthful spectators, when for the first time they see in reality a thing which they have often contemplated on the screen. Anyone who looks for the first time at landscape from an aeroplane will feel that he has seen it already with the exception of colours.

(4) Just as the invention of printing has had an unfavourable influence on memory, the cinema tends to impair imagination. Thanks to books and writing, people are not obliged to remember so many things, as, for instance, in antiquity, they do not train their memory so well and consequently it is less developed. Films relieve the imagination in a similar fashion. Daydreams constitute the most important psychological process of imaginative adolescents. They used to draw their substance from reading books in which were found situations visualized with the help of constructive imagination. Now the cinema offers ready-made images. The imagination of the dreamer is still active of course and constructs new pictures, but they are mostly based on reminiscences from the screen. Imagination modifies these pictures, but it

is useless to deny that it requires much less effort than in the days when its only materials were, at best, scanty illustrations of landscapes and environments which are now profusely represented on the screen.

(5) The cinema makes its audience more sensitive to values of a visual nature, a fact which prevents them from fully enjoying other shows, especially theatrical ones, which cannot compete with films in spectacular achievements. As young people go far more often to the cinema than to the theatre this drawback has great chances of developing. In order to counterbalance it, the young must be taught to feel the beauty of the spoken word, its wit and thoroughness and to enjoy contact with a real, live actor.

(6) Every person, and above all adolescents, feel the need of running away from the realities of life to the domain of fiction, if only for a short while. In former times this need was chiefly met by narrations. Nowadays the cinema, affording a visual perception of imaginary worlds, reduces the demand for written fiction, as almost everybody prefers to see things without any efforts of imagination, or any need of intellectual understanding which are indispensable in reading books.

(B) Moreover it is not only the way in which things are presented on the screen and the very fact of its being presented, but the cinematographic visual conception of the world which are extremely important in the formation of the individuality of the public. The subject of a film may have a good influence on their mind and character, or else a bad one. The latter is more frequent nowadays, so we shall proceed to see what are the chief dangers of cinematographic pictures. They consist in (1) giving a false image of the world and of people; (2) showing crime in a suggestive way; (3) prematurely awakening sexual instinct or over-developing it.

(1) We have already pointed to the way in which the cinematographic vision of the world becomes part of the life experience of individuals, shaping their opinions on people and the world. They see in films many things which do not belong to the narrow horizon of their everyday life and derive

from the pictures their opinions and principles of conduct as regards them. The film gives a distorted image of the world in more than one sense. First, it does it as all works of art do. Life appears to man as a chaos of phenomena seemingly without casual relations. Film stories give a choice of events the connection of which is obvious. That intellectual construction being easy to notice and suggestive, no wonder that people try to apply it to real life and persons. Cinematographic composition must be much simpler than that met in literature, and consequently it distorts reality still more. It is practically limited to means appealing directly to the senses and must deal very superficially with psychological reactions. Owing to the short time at their disposal, pictures necessarily resort to sharp contrasts sacrificing individualization. Ready-made heroes, the vamp, the innocent maid, etc., have become settled inhabitants of film land. The young are prone to apply these patterns to people they meet, and this makes it very difficult to know what the latter really are. The deliberate distortions of a work of art can do no harm from an educational point of view, but this is not the case with the cinematographic selection of sensational elements, its flattering of instincts and passions. The easily seduced woman, the thoughtless rich, the noble criminal, the silly scholar, the always victorious adventurer constitute the largest group of film heroes. Films also give a false idea of sex psychology. They always show man endowed with a masterful will, fully aware of his purposes and logically aiming at securing their realization, whereas woman helplessly awaits from fate or other people the fulfilment of her dreams.

The distortion of reality does not stop at the psychology of people. Conflicts are solved in ways widely departing from real life. The criminal is only strong in the beginning but the end proves he is really the weaker party. If we want fully to realize cinematographic distortion, let us consider what a town urchin would think of the country and a country lad of town, if they knew it only from the pictures.

According to these images, in large towns there would only be streets flooded with light, taxicabs, bars, hotels, dens

of criminals, luxurious apartments and street urchins. In the country, where rain would never fall, work would proceed rhythmically to the accompaniment of songs amidst wonderful corn fields, and then everybody would go home followed by beautiful herds of cattle.

The fact that the cinema does not tend to give a real picture of life is also proved by its incursion into exotic environments. Films giving a realistic insight into the life of individuals or societies are extremely rare. Even actualities distort real life, as one would think that only sporting events, catastrophes, parades and curious happenings are the most important facts. The cinematographic point of view can be compared to that of a sensational rag with one-sided selection of striking actualities but without leading articles or any discussion of the underlying causes and results of social living. Films with obvious tendencies are perhaps less harmful, at least for intelligent people who soon detect them. On the whole, however, the public do not like purely fantastic films. They like pictures to be almost real so that they can draw conclusions to be applied to everyday life. The audience believes in the "truth" of the film; they think that heroes and events are drawn from life even if the story is fictitious. This danger is particularly threatening as regards adolescents whose opinions, development of individuality and plans for the future are crystallizing. The cinema can give them spurious educational notions, create a false picture of friendship or love, which will interfere in their relations with people they meet or make them discontented with their environments in their yearning for luxuries far above their means.

(2) Let us now examine the influence of crimes shown on the screen. They occur relatively more frequently in a film story than in reality. The audience can easily draw the impression that crime constitutes a normal factor of life and they become less sensitive to the violation of moral law. Their indignation and pity for the victims grow weaker. The producer probably means to condemn crime, but this tendency is far less plastic and suggestive than the actual criminal scenes. Punishment or remorse comes at the very end, whereas

the public assist to the success of the criminal throughout the whole series of pictures but the last. Besides, the moral end is often due to a *deus ex machina*, whereas criminal successes are psychologically justified by human cowardice and the opportunities life affords to people unhampered by moral scruples. The audience must find the action far more convincing than its artificial retribution. Finally punishment is just sketched and not dwelt on as is the case with the delights derived from a successful crime. In literature the description of the psychological reaction of the criminal, of his fears and remorse, counteracts the noxious influence of criminal deeds. In films, external actions and not the inner life of the criminal occupy the foreground, i.e., his conduct without the psychological sanctions which go hand in hand with crime. The cinema, not being able to bring out the dualism of the human mind, cannot show crime in a way that would exert a favourable educational influence. People are shown things which children, adolescents and even grown men are ashamed even to think of. This fact destroys moral restraints and the psychological function of shame before one's own judgment. It is also impossible not to mention that the film constitutes a very powerful propaganda for new customs which are always freer than those of a given milieu of spectators.

(3) We shall not insist on the pornographical, or rather "porno-visual," aspect of the cinema as it has been done from all points of view. Suggestive nakedness or sexual contacts shown to young spectators give them materials for unhealthy day dreams which last much longer than the pictures, thus exercising a highly undesirable influence from the educational point of view.

These unfavourable influences of films are hardly counter-balanced by favourable ones. The latter consist in (A) an enlargement of knowledge about the world and (B) in the possibility of helping moral training thanks to the plasticity of cinematographic pictures.

(A) Films enlarge our knowledge of the world as they show so many interesting things which the audience could

not have seen otherwise. This knowledge sometimes happens to be inaccurate (historical mistakes, an exaggerated schematization of environments etc.), but these mistakes only lessen benefits derived from the pictures without entirely destroying them. This knowledge is also very inaccurate and chaotic as the public, being absorbed in the story, does not pay much notice to other things. It is even difficult to speak of "knowledge" as the audience has neither time nor wish to pass judgments on pictures following in rapid succession. It is true however that the same details appear many times in one film and often in several films so that onlookers recognize towns, monuments and landscapes. Our opinions can be formed not only during the film but after looking at it, on the strength of visual reminiscences. In this way the cinema can be said to enlarge our stock of notions about the world in an experimental way.

(B) Films can also exert a favourable influence on the moral training of youth. They give imaginary pictures of the life of man, of its wonderful fate, its happiness and despair, thereby appealing to the conscience of the audience and teaching them to understand still unknown psychological experiences and situations pertaining to persons besides themselves. This sympathy with other people's feelings is a fundamental element of altruism. The psychological identification of onlookers with the moral values of the heroes may become a powerful instrument of self-education. By showing types akin to some of the spectators it helps them to understand their own character and even incidentally to make them form resolutions of amendment. The cinema can also greatly promote the development of religious and patriotic feelings. It shares all these possibilities with literature but is endowed with the overbearing influence of visual suggestion almost entirely deprived of abstraction and verbalism.

Our discussion of the educational possibilities of the cinema, the visual perception of the world it affords and of its handling of the elements of this image justifies our assertion of its educational importance. The realization of the many-sided reactions it awakens in the minds of the audience

can show us the way to control its influence. By inducing producers of films to improve their standards and by showing the cinema public how to look at moving pictures, unlimited possibilities could be contemplated.

There is still another aspect of film production which we shall note in conclusion to our reflexions. In their actual state, cinematographic pictures are meant for the masses and do not require a high educational level from the audience. Education loses thereby something of its social value as it is superfluous for the enjoyment of one of the most desirable cultural entertainments. Most young people acquire knowledge in the hope of advancing socially—this is their remoter aim—and in order immediately to enjoy the gains of civilization. As it is now possible to replace all cultural entertainments by the cinema, the efforts entailed in the acquisition of learning tend to become useful only in view of a remote future, a fact which reacts most unfavourably on the will to acquire knowledge.

There is no doubt that the cinema enlarges our visual perception of the world, thus contributing to the formation of human individuality as things seen on the screen become part of the life experience of the spectators. This is due to the fact that people do not easily discriminate observations of actual happenings from the images afforded by the almost real world of the film. Moreover it is not only the context of the pictures which exerts an educational influence but also the way the audience look at them.

If we dwell on the second feature of this problem we see that the cinema can teach us: (1) a more careful observation of things; (2) a new way of looking at them, revealing many new aspects and points of view; (3) to find out things worth seeing in unknown surroundings; (4) a quicker taking in and quicker mental processes; (5) a more accurate understanding of mimics, gesticulation, etc.; (6) to feel nature and inanimate objects; (7) an esthetical perception of things; (8) a subtler observation of the nuances and values of neutral colours; (9, 10, 11) to enjoy the new sources of esthetical experience created by the cinema; (12) to be more exacting in our es-

thetical requirements of actual objects.

On the other hand, the way cinematographic pictures are looked at, the fact they are so often seen can also exert unfavourable influences consisting in: (1) creating an impatient attitude in the enjoyment of work of art; (2) making people used to banish contemplation from their esthetical perceptions; (3) lessening the delight of first contact with reality; (4) weakening the activity of imagination; (5) making it difficult to enjoy stage acting because of an overgrowth of visual perception; (6) rendering readers indifferent to literary narration as it is easier to run away from reality to the visual world of fiction.

The unfavourable influences of the context of films consist in: (1) distorting the image of people and the world; (2) showing crime in a suggestive way; (3) premature by awakening the sexual instinct and abnormally developing it. To a certain extent, these undesirable influences are counterbalanced by: (a) the increase of our visual knowledge of the world and (b) the help cinematographic pictures can offer in moral education, thanks to their visual plasticity.

Finally, in our discussion of the cinema, we cannot leave aside the argument that it lessens the "social value" of education, as it allows uneducated people to enjoy one of the most attractive products of civilization without undertaking the efforts learning entails.

JOINT SESSION
OF
HOME & SCHOOL SECTION
AND
PRE-SCHOOL & KINDERGARTEN SECTION

Chairman :

Part I. Mrs. J. K. Pettengill, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Washington, D. C., U. S. A.

Part II. Mrs. R. P. Alexander, President, National Mothers' Club of Japan, Tokyo, Japan.

Secretary : Miss Edith U. Conard, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, U. S. A.

Place of Meeting : Room No. 25

One Session Only

Saturday, 7th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)

PART I

Opening Address of the Chairman

"I am delighted to see so large a group of people still eager to get together for our mutual inspiration, help, and improvement, as well as for our happy experiences together. One of our English authors, Robert Louis Stevenson, whom we all love, especially those of us who know and love children, has said that the things we say in our morning moments

are perhaps indicative of our spirit in a far more intimate way than the things that are said later in the day; and he himself said in a morning prayer, "Wake us up with happy morning faces." Now, I would like to say that those of you who have come from a distance have brought the same face to this meeting that our Japanese mothers and our Japanese friends have brought—happy morning faces. It is particularly appropriate that we, who are going to conserve the intimate close association of children with parents, mothers, and other adults, should be the ones who love to express our spirits on this morning. Surely we do gather with happy morning faces.

I have an announcement to make which I don't want to make at all because I'm afraid I'm going to lose one or two of my audience if I do. This is not the Health Section. This is the Home and School Section. The Health Section is meeting in Room 18; so if any of you reading the first announcement came here expecting to attend the Health Section, you will be disappointed although you wouldn't be a bit disappointed in hearing what is going to go on here this morning."

Education of Women

Mr. Harbhai Trivedi

*Principal, Secondary Teachers' Training Department,
Kathiawar, India*

The intricate problem of female education, in co-educational as well as girls' schools, is perplexing educationists today. Neither co-educationists nor experts on female education have any clear conception of what education of women is. In female education, the objects, that is, the girls themselves, present so complex a problem that all the workers

Joint Session of the Home & School Section and
the Pre-School & Kindergarten Section



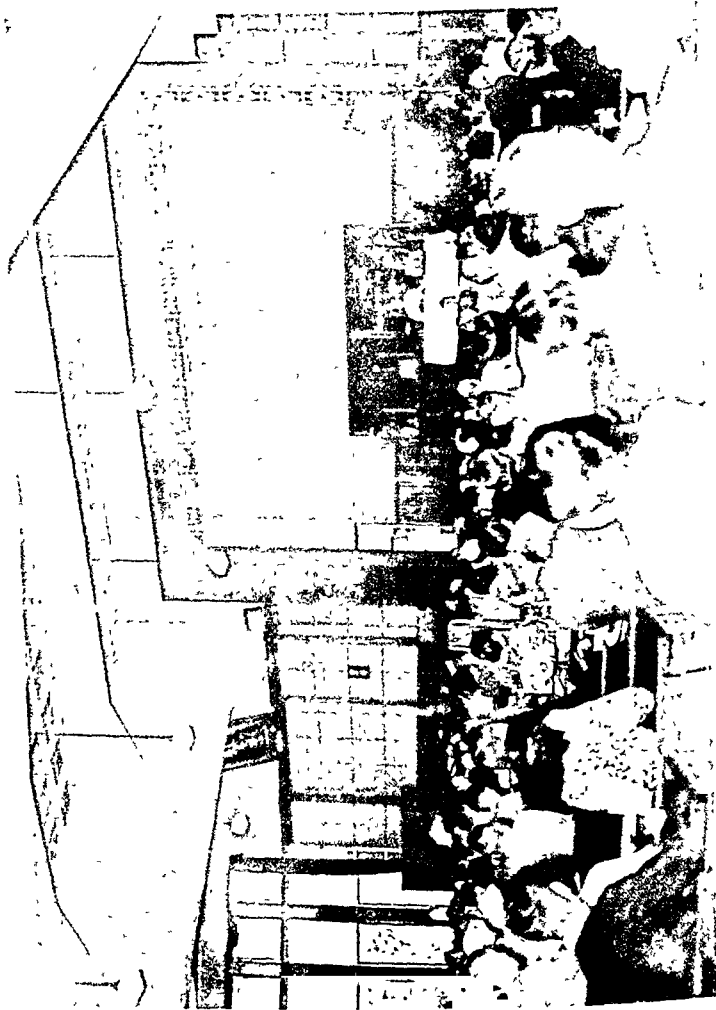
Mrs. R. P. Alexander
(Chairman, Part II)



Countess Nobuko Sanjonishi
(See P. 581)



Dr. Charlotte B. de Forest
(See P. 575)



Joint Session of the Home & School Section and the Pre-School & Kindergarten Section

will have to join hands in solving it successfully. You have been dealing with the problem of education of women through co-education. If you express your ideas about this, they will be helpful.

This is the question put forward by a gentleman who looks at female education from a thinker's point of view. As he says, the problem of female education is certainly perplexing. However much our society has fallen in the ruts of years, it has not yet been able to shake off its conservatism. Women, too, who, have already been educated and who are being educated, cannot give up a certain view-point which is the heritage of years. It is, generally, the males who deal with the problem of the education of women in our country. It is no exaggeration to say that these female workers who take to that field become as limited in thinking as their male colleagues. What wonder is there if women educated in a manner laid down by men, follow the same line of thinking? On the other hand, on account of a certain rigid mentality nourished for ages, even some very highly educated women pursue ideology that is more slavish than that of uneducated women. At any rate it is quite clear that the problem of female education has not been tackled from two view-points:—(1) that of the women themselves and (2) that of the place which women ought to have in society. Those who are devoted to education should at first think what is the peculiar position in society of that part of it which they want to educate. Together with that they also think that, as they are outsiders so far as the education of women is concerned, the problem is to be handed over to men to be independently solved by them. If the problem of educating any uneducated part of society is thought out from these two view-points, then only it is unselfishly thought out. If there be the least shadow of selfishness, to that extent the education of that part would be lost.

We, who advocate and provide for the education of women, have we kept these points of view before us?

Whatever be the reason our country had a certain dark period during which culture was altogether lost from society.

When we woke up, or rather when awakened, we thought of educating the people. Due to the prominence which men enjoy in society, the education of men was first decided upon and arranged for. Since the motive behind this education was not pure and unselfish and since men have by natural convenience gained a superior position in society, this education was vicious. The ignorant female portion continued to remain uneducated and also "Indian minded;" that is to say, very docile, and as a result their condition in our country was no better than that of animals. Those men who were fortunately saved from the forge of foreign education felt this inequality and became uneasy at the wretched condition of their mothers. This gave rise to the idea of the education of women in our society. We will not examine the history of what happened in the field of female education after that. But if we look at the condition that exists at present we may be able to help in solving the question. Today it is the men who think of female education; and those who outwardly admit that this problem should be handed over to women, cannot in practice give up their selfish view-point. From one point of view the education of the untouchables and women stand at the same level, even though the problem of female education has been tackled first. We always have our selfish motives behind the education of both. In spite of the thoughts that women are half of society, that the amelioration of society is impossible without educating them, that ignorant mothers cannot co-operate in educating the future generation—in spite of all these maxims we must not hesitate in admitting that we cannot get rid of the thoughts that we are the husbands of women. From that view-point thinkers in the field of female education are in a difficult position. They have been tempted to arrange for female education, inspired by the thought that there should be equal facilities of free education for women as for men. But behind this thought are dimly lurking the ideas that as a girl grows old she becomes a woman, that man has to exact certain work from that woman, that the woman obeys certain despotism of man! So a careful investigator will find that schemes for the edu-

cation of girls below the age of eleven and above, as arranged for today, are slightly distinct. Girls should be taught the same subjects as boys; co-education produces co-operation and love is the cause of many good activities—all these thoughts change as soon as the girl enters the threshold of secondary education. At that time selfishness creeps into the minds of these educationists; and then the doctrines that certain subjects should be taught to women while others should not be taught, that there should be certain limitations on freedom in female education, that females should be kept apart from males, and that there should be no co-education—such doctrines and many others creep into the field of female education. As a result it is forgotten that though a woman is a woman, she is a human being and thus the selfishness of men obliterates the human standpoint. If we are to decide what are the problems of female education we shall find that they only rise in the provinces of secondary and higher education. With the advent of extreme thinkers in the field of education, the question of co-education assumed importance. Stray experiments in co-education were started in the country, and women got equal chances of education with men. On one side these radicals began their work; on the other side the moderates continue to serve in the field of female education. In the work of education if any plan is made without giving due thinking to its objects, the society, and the times, such a plan would surely prove harmful. The radical thinkers in the field of female education and the narrow-minded moderators both committed the above mistake. So, women, being unable to develop virtues requisite for human beings, went to the next extreme; on the other hand, in spite of all education the mentality of women remained narrow and they were no better than uneducated women. One side overshot the mark, while the other undershot it. One school forgot itself in its anxiety to become philanthropic; the other became inhuman in its selfishness. The females' world had to suffer from the mistakes of both. Women who have received education from the extremist party are not able to think out the problems

of education; how, then, can we expect women educated by the moderate party to think independently? The thought of this state of things is painful. Both these parties are responsible for this unhappy state of things.

We see two types in the world of educated women today. One sort desires to progress by disregarding all the conventions and narrow-minded rules of society; the other type, in spite of being well-educated, remains faithful to the idea of Indian womanhood. This is the result of narrow-minded and selfish organizations of female education; such a state of things is bound to disappear; till then we are in an impasse. A radical woman, in trying to do away with things which she deems undesirable in the light of her education, has forgotten qualities peculiar to women. An old-fashioned educated woman, in trying to keep faithful to her womanhood, seems to forget that God has put a human soul in her. The result is that intricate and opposing doctrines of female education exist and put us in a difficult situation. Those who think about female education must first bear in mind that every woman possesses a strong and live soul, just as there is a soul in the body of a man. Woman is free and strong enough to work in every path of life in which man considers himself free and strong to work. In any true scheme of education of any part of society, this idea of freedom of the soul is always at the top; so also it should be in the forefront in any good scheme of female education. What remains to be done in any scheme of female education after the acceptance of this principle is only to put down details from educational and psychological view-points. Just as in the case of the education of male children, we have various ideas from the standpoints of education and psychology, so also we must have them in laying down a scheme of educating female children. We, the educationists, know that every child is a free individual and that its education must be such as respects this fact. In the same way every woman is a free individual and her education must be moulded after bearing in mind her individuality. We do not distinguish woman as woman from one another but only as a human being.

When we distinguish one human child from another, we think of its body, its intellect, its mind, and its soul—each as different from one another. Close examination will reveal to us that the body, the mind, etc., of every human being are differently constituted. So it is not improper if we think of the education of women, looking to her mind, body, etc. There may be as much difference between male and female education as is necessary according to this rule of psychology; but that does not prove that there is any fundamental distinction between the education of the two. Let us take an example. Nature has constituted the bodies of man and woman in wonderfully different ways. Bearing in mind this difference it is but natural that the education of men and women should be differently thought out. Things which may be fit for developing the body of man may be unsuitable for the development of woman. This fact is likely to lead us into the belief that the education of males should be fundamentally different from that of females. For reasons of natural constitution if we exempt women from hard labour, it does not follow that only females are fit for delicate things and that males are not, or that only men can do hard things while women cannot—such a thought would be illogical and ridiculous. As in the case of bodies, so in the case of all other things this holds good. This fact has been lost sight of by us and at the same time the selfishness of educationists has crept in and has made the question of female education a problem.

I cannot claim to have thought out the question of the education of women perfectly and independently. To a very small extent I had to think of it in my experiment of co-education. In my opinion, based on the little experience that I have had, we have ourselves created confusion in this matter, as aforesaid, which has given rise to this problem. If the ideas of female education become clearer and more scientific, I believe the problem would be much easier. It would then be a minor point whether female education is imparted through special girls' schools or through co-educational schools. When we think of education, the idea of

the student being a human entity should be in the forefront, while that of his being a child or an adolescent is only secondary. In the same manner, the thoughts whether the object belongs to one sex or the other or to what caste he or she belongs should be in the background. The fact that in thinking of education we think of the human soul should be before us. If this one thought is attended to carefully, all other thoughts in the matter would only be of second-rate importance.

Should there not be separate arrangements for the education of boys and girls? Are their duties in society not different? If we go deeper in these questions, we find that they refer to co-education. The questioner means to say that since the activities of men and women are different, their education also should differ.

The question of co-education is debated, it is true; it may be debatable. But the way in which opposition is shown against co-education is not proper. It is a mistake to believe that the education of men and that of women should be different simply because their spheres of activities are different. The temperaments of men are different; those of women are also different; for that reason alone we do not advocate individual teaching. Boys with different tempers can study together in one school; so also can girls. One individual is in some way always different from another individual; in spite of this we can see that it is possible for students to co-operate in school. The aim of a true educational institution is to see how individuals can secure their development while living in society. The sacrifice which an individual has to make while living and developing in society is a kind of training for him. The case of girls is the same as that of boys. It cannot be understood why in spite of this it is maintained that boys and girls should be separately educated on the ground that their fields of work are different. Boys who have studied in one school take to different spheres in later life. One becomes a trader, another a doctor, a third a leader, and a fourth becomes a teacher. After finishing general mental education, one may have to receive training

for some definite profession--that is a different thing. If, by saying that field of activity of women is different it is means that they should receive some special training afterwards. There is no objection to such a thing. But that means that for general education there should be no objection in educating boys and girls together. Later on there may be separate training institutions for them.

But the questioner means something else. He means to say that even general education should be separately given to boys and girls; we can easily imagine the reasons for this. Today the belief that females are not so intelligent as males is very much in vogue; the subjects which are taught in schools and colleges are found difficult for girls. They have less grasping power; certain subjects are never meant for females. There is also another belief that females are not constituted so as to be able to learn subjects which are very intellectual. Women are sentimental, while men are intellectual. For that reason subjects which develop the heart should be given predominance in the education of women; while the subjects for males should be such as help in developing the head. Hence wherever separate arrangements are made for the education of females, subjects like fine-arts, music, sewing, writing, etc., are given greater share, while subjects like mathematics and Sanskrit are intentionally omitted. The curriculum for the education of women is kept easy. A third opinion is that women generally have to perform household duties and the care of children; so their education should be of quite a different type from that of men. There are some subjects of male education that are needless for women; while women have need of some subjects which are of no need to men at any time. Therefore, both these systems of education must be widely different. For all such reasons separate education for women is advocated.

The above three reasons are generally offered against co-education. A little thinking will show them to be unfounded. It is an insult to say that women have less intelligence. History proves and the thinkers of today have

experienced that women possess as much capable brains as men. We have not given women a chance to develop their intelligence on account of wrong ideas. From the beginning we have created the belief that women have less intelligence. Such an atmosphere must naturally affect women. Moreover, the belief that females are less intelligent is taken for granted in designing courses for their instruction. In spite of such an atmosphere and such teaching, there is often born a woman who dazzles mankind by her wonderful genius. We consider such women as exceptions. As a matter of fact, they are not. Or they are exceptions so far as they were saved from the stroke of evil designed for their culture. If proper opportunities are given to women to develop their minds by way of education, and if the idea that they are less intelligent is destroyed, we would surely see as many intelligent women as men in society.

It is a fact that the heart of woman is full of sentiments. Woman is born to be a mother; and so women's education must be so designed as to make their hearts more delicate and to ennoble the feeling of love in them—there cannot be two opinions about this. But because they have delicate sentiments and these sentiments are going to be called into play in later life, it is, for this reason, proper to stress the culture of the hearts alone and to disregard the intellect altogether. Compared with men, teachers may put more stress on the development of the heart in females that can be granted. But for that matter, it is not fit that education for men should take into account only the intellect. Men as well as women have hearts and minds. Unless a proper share is given to both, the education of both is bound to be incomplete. If on account of the present system of instruction based on false ideas, men become giants of intellect and women become oversentimental, the result is undesirable. By co-education the proper development of the head and the heart is possible in both boys and girls. Teachers can form a correct idea of the intelligence of the girls and the heart of the boys. If we wish to bring an equilibrium between intelligence and feeling in our society, we should organize

education after acquainting ourselves with the psychology of boys and girls. In this direction a co-educational school can do more than separate schools for boys and girls.

To advocate separate schools for girls on the ground that they are born to bear household duties shows the low mentality of men. We do not consider men as separate for purposes of general education although different men are to take up different lines of work. Man is as much responsible for house management as is woman. The idea that women are cooks and have only to keep the house well ordered is insulting to them. It is false to suppose that men have no household duties simply because, for reasons of convenience, that burden has been laid on the shoulders of women. The knowledge of how to cook or how to manage the household is equally important for men. It is for the teachers to see that divisions which have been created for reasons of convenience do not lead to any belief of one class being higher or lower than another. It can be granted that by nature the mother has been designed for the bringing up of the child; but, on that account, it would be wrong for the father to remain totally indifferent to the care of his children, to household duties, and the care of the child should be necessary duties for both the parents. In order to engender a sense of these duties in young age, co-education would be very helpful. What little difference in the spheres of activities is found to be necessary for reasons of temperament will be made in such institutions, after a study of the psychology of the boys and the girls. If difference in the fields of activity leads to a belief in the difference of levels, society would degenerate.

We saw how unfounded were the objections against co-education. Co-educational institutes have to be considered as educational institutions. But the real point of consideration for co-education and in which thinkers may justly raise objections is the question of the proper and proportionate development of inborn sex instincts in the boys and girls. The instincts which in separate schools for boys and girls would lie dormant and have to be treated differently would

in co-educational schools assume such strange and complex aspects that the teacher must do serious thinking. The teacher should see that these instincts do not go wrong and get perverted. He should see that such instincts develop properly, do not die out, and make the society of men and women proper. This is a matter in which co-educational schools should exercise great care. It needs the deepest thinking. For this purpose the best arrangements for sex-education should be made; for this is necessary to create a pure atmosphere that would make the heart and mind purer. All other thoughts may safely be given less importance. We cannot think more deeply about this here.

The Education of Mothers' in Japan

Mr. Yoshiki Takasaki

Principal, Asagaya Kindergarten, Tokyo, Japan

(See Vol. V, P. 573)

PART II

Education of Girls for Motherhood in Japan

Dr. Charlotte B. de Forest

President, Kobe College, Nishinomya, Japan

In the Colleges and Universities Section the other day, one of the Japanese speakers deplored the fact that secondary education for women substituted many hours of sewing and housekeeping for some subjects which boys had in their middle school, so that girls were not properly prepared by higher schools for entrance into universities on an equal footing with men. I recall a few years ago a Japanese physician practising in one of the large cities in Japan who said that he could recognize among the mothers of the children whose sicknesses he attended the graduates of a certain school, because those graduates were so intelligent in their handling of the instructions which he gave them for their children. These two arguments seemed to pre-suppose that higher education is more important for women than techniques in the home and in motherhood. But we know that it is claimed that although ancient Greece had some of the most brilliant minds that human history has ever revealed, the arrested development of science in that civilization was due to the fact that it was built upon slavery, and it was not considered honourable for an educated man to do manual labour. And we have learned in our generation to realize that the actual physical application of muscles to certain problems elucidates them. And it seems to me that we are not untrue to a tradition for higher cultural education if we maintain that the teaching of the techniques of motherhood and of home-making should bring about a type of person who would contribute most fully to the civilization of her age. I am not

myself a specialist along this line so I have asked permission to ask Miss Field of our Home Science Department to give a more concrete discussion of the subject.

Education for Mothers

Miss Sarah Field

Professor, Kobe College, Nishinomiya, Japan

In Mr. Takasaki's most interesting and personal presentations and those of the other speakers whom we have heard, it is almost superfluous and presumptuous for me, an American, to add anything, but if, in presenting to you some concrete details of the contents of the courses offered in high schools, junior colleges, and colleges of Japan, I can give you a closer view of Japan and a better international understanding of home life, I shall be happy.

The subjects that are taught in the home economics or home science departments of our Japanese schools are not very different on a broad view from those taught in other countries. They are taught in two or three classes here, and the first one is sewing and the second one is cookery. Child welfare or child development is occasionally included, but it is also listed separately in view of its great importance. I am sorry that in the time I have had for preparation I have been unable to make the careful investigations that have made valuable so many papers that we have had the privilege of hearing here, but if you will not object to my brevity I will try to give you what I can.

You have heard Mr. Takasaki's very careful exposition of the "Education of Japanese Women" and will realize the Japanese need of appreciation of cultural and moral values. I need not here point out the proportion of such spiritual training in present-day formal education. If Japanese

curricula do not yet show courses listed as *family relationship* as do those in America, it is because the Orient has had its own teachings along those lines and all of it is devoted to family relations because of the importance of the family in Oriental life.

In the girls' high schools of Japan these attitudes towards the family are taught in what is known as "*Kaji*," household affairs, which is a very comprehensive subject, covering almost any technical home economics subjects except for sewing and possibly cookery. The sewing is so very important. I think you will, after some of the very beautiful exhibits we have seen, appreciate the importance of clothing and the very interesting position it occupies in the cultural history of Japan, and because of that, and because of present-day changes in the life of Japan which necessitates not only native costumes but also the European and Western dress that we see so frequently—because of that sewing is paramount and it carries the largest amount of hours in any home economics course. Cookery, though technically often included in household affairs, is usually often listed separately; and in the high school it is taught in one of our laboratory periods during the final one or two years of our four or five-year course. Cookery includes the preparation of occidental dishes and also Chinese dishes. In five-year high schools the other household affairs may be limited to one period a week during a year or two, so there is just nothing that can be given there of the many subjects treated. Let me name some of them besides the ethical instruction. There will be courses in food and nutrition, of course; dyeing and laundrying; the study of textile fibres; the care of children, also of the invalid, and of older persons; household budgets and accounts; care and entertainment of relatives and guests; giving of presents; the celebration of festivals; the treatment of servants and of tradesmen. These are taught in the schools largely by the lecture method. But etiquette, both Occidental and Japanese, is taught by demonstration and practice whenever possible. Flower arrangement, tea ceremony, and Japanese calligraphy are considered very desirable in second-

ary education.

On Wednesday, Dr. de Forest and I visited a trade high school not far away. We found that in their regular two years' vocational home science course and a one-year post-graduate course there was the same sewing and household affairs. The list also includes morals; Japanese language; education; music; physics; mathematics; manual arts which includes many kinds of crafts, dances and gymnastics; and also optional courses in massages; beauty culture; in tea ceremony; and samisen, the three-stringed guitar; the flower arrangement; and the ways of dressing, that is, the way of putting on Japanese clothing; and ethics. Among the girls' high schools, even high schools of vocational type, there are many so-called brides' schools; there intensive work is given in sewing and cookery and some of the other household affairs in one or two years of thirty or thirty-five or forty-minute periods per week. There are also special schools and special departments offering cultural and teacher-training courses in home economics on a higher level. The number of these has increased greatly during the last few years. In these courses more hours are given for food and nutrition than for the household affairs. The subjects are: hygiene, psychology and science, dyeing and laundrying, and classics, while gardening may also be included; music and English are also taught.

All these special schools which are under the Imperial Department of Education must have a course in moral training or ethics. We noted this in the trade high school's curriculum. The Christian schools are permitted to teach Christian ethics and the Bible in these courses. At our Kobe Jogakuin, in the recently revised curriculum of the two-year home-makers' course, the following subjects are listed: ethics, the Bible, textile study, nutrition, gardening, cookery, health economics, hygiene, care of the child and sick, etiquette, and calligraphy. We should note the study of Japanese language, child psychology, natural science, art appreciation, social welfare work, English, history, gymnastics, civics, mathematics and music. In addition to such special schools,

schools of junior college grade offer two-year teacher-training courses in home economics. These, by Government regulations, require more support in science and other subjects. A few such three-year courses are more cultural and include arts, crafts, music, and English in a greater number of hours. At the Japan Women's University, a home economics teaching major is offered as well as one in training in social service. The two Higher Normal Schools run by the Imperial Department of Education are offering higher home economics training. Many of us have visited the one here in Tokyo and have seen there the very wonderful exhibition. Perhaps we don't realize what that school itself means in the development in home economics. The teacher training there is the best in the country and is being done in four-year courses identical to the studies which are offered in their curriculum. There will be the "Noh" drama, ethics, pedagogy, and home economics. A considerable number of hours are devoted to the household affairs which include cooking. Sewing still has the largest number of hours followed by science, drawing, manual arts, English, music and gymnastics. Again, we set up these various types of education for the home. The formal education of Japan has some features peculiarly Japanese. Some of them are essentially international in character, as, for instance, clothing and cookery, which show definite relations to the clothing and cookery of other countries.

Speeches

[At the close of the Joint Session the following speeches were delivered.]

Mrs. Nobu Kawasumi (*Vice-President, National Mothers' Association, Tokyo, Japan*): "Our National Mothers' Association was established thirty-nine years ago, and that was the first of its kind in Japan. It has grown through the years, and now we have six thousand members including some Japanese mothers in Canada and the United States. To these members we send each month a new sixteen-page pamphlet on some subject to help improve the home. There are many magazines and books written for wives and mothers in Japan, but in many homes, mothers have little time for reading. For this reason we have decided that a small pamphlet on a single subject is best for busy mothers. This they can read in a few moments at leisure. Our object is the training of mothers in the better care of their children, physically, mentally, and spiritually.

For a number of years we belonged to the International Mothers' Congress. When the name was changed to the International Federation of Home and School, we retained our membership in the organization.

The second Sunday in May has been celebrated in Japan for more than twenty years as "International Mothers' Day." On that day it has been the privilege of our organization to present baskets of carnations to Their Imperial Majesties the Empress and the Empress Dowager.

Besides our Mothers' Association there are now Mothers' Clubs in connection with schools and kindergartens all over the country. It is our hope that after a visit to this Meeting in Tokyo, all of the mothers' associations may unite and become affiliated with the International Federation of Home and School.

Professor Sozo Kurahashi (*Tokyo Higher Normal School for Women, Tokyo, Japan*) expressed in Japanese his sense of gratitude to those present for their hearty co-operation.

Countess Nobuko Sanjonishi (*President, All-Japan Federation of Women, Tokyo, Japan*): "It is a great honour and pleasure to meet you who are assembled from far-off countries. My heart is full of gratitude and thanks that you will be able to profit by this conference and the lectures. Education is love itself, and love is a wonderful thing which springs up from the mother heart. If one can look at the world with the mother heart, it will shine with peace and grace. The mothers of Japan greet you sincerely and hope through this opportunity you will understand and see Japan in the right way; and when you return to your countries, we hope you will think that the Japanese mothers honour and respect education. Not losing this chance, let us grasp our hands together and then go forward to create peace in the world through the mother heart. Health and goodwill be with you always."

**JOINT SESSION
OF
HEALTH SECTION
AND
RURAL EDUCATION SECTION**

*Chairman: Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce, Bryn Llewelyn,
Llanfair, Welshpool, Wales, Great Britain.*

*Secretary: Mr. Frank E. Midkiff, Director, Com-
munity Association of Hawaii; Assistant Treasurer,
J. B. Atherton Estate, Ltd., Hawaii.*

Place of Meeting: Room No. 18.

One Session Only

Saturday, 7th August, 9 a.m.-12 (noon)

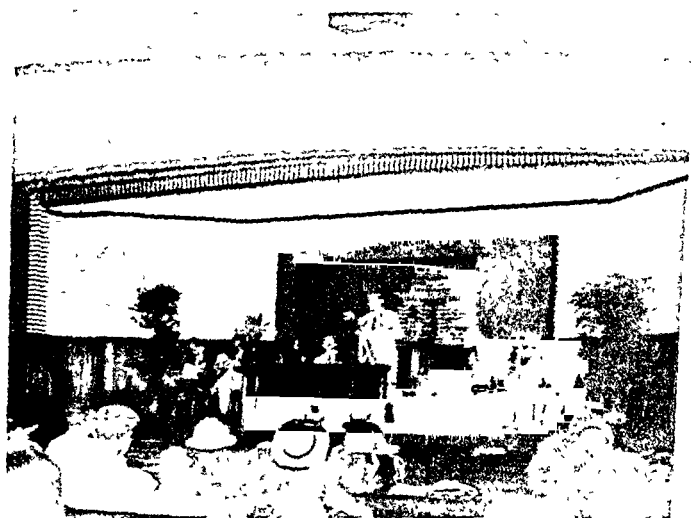
Opening Address of the Chairman

"We open this Saturday morning session of the conference. As you are aware this is a joint meeting of the Health and the Rural Sections. Both sections have done their best in their own years of labour. Dr. Turner, the chairman of the Health Section thought about a year ago that it would be a profitable thing to have a joint session at this conference of the World Federation in Japan, and so he wrote to

Joint Session of the Health Section and
the Rural Education Section



Mr. Allan Hulsizer
(See P. 613)



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me and asked whether I agreed and I willingly did so, and I had expected that from the Health side there would have been a considerable number of speakers provided to speak on health in rural areas. But owing to the unfortunate circumstances which have befallen both the chairman and the secretary of the Health Section, the chairman being ill and Miss Jean having suffered an accident, it is almost entirely a rural problem that you're going to deal with here this morning. And as you see from the agenda in your handbook I am going to speak on 'Training in Health and Recreation of Rural Inhabitants.' "

Training for Health and Recreation of Rural Inhabitants

Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce

*Bryn Llewelyn, Llanfair, Welshpool,
Wales, Great Britain*

The problems of rural communities may in part be universal; so far as they are, what I have to say in this paper will be helpful to representatives from all countries. But in England and Wales we have special problems of our own. In speaking of the provisions which have been made in my country for the health and recreation of rural inhabitants, the decline in the population of the countryside and the great and fundamental changes which have come to agriculture during the post-war years have always to be considered.

The rural population resident in "Rural Districts" as formed for Local Government purposes has shown a rapid decline since the last half of the nineteenth Century.

In 1851 it formed nearly 50% of the total population of the country; in 1871, 22%; in 1911, 21%; in 1931, 20%.

This exodus from the land was inevitable. The condition of life prevailing in English villages, was such that the only hope the land worker had for protecting and improving his standards of life was to get out. In the meantime the rationalization of agriculture has gone on rapidly; the power to increase production without the necessity of absorbing more workers is so firmly established that it is unlikely that the process of attracting men back to the land, except for certain small-scale and intensive types of enterprise, will ever be successful.

There has been a rather facile acceptance of the theory that the elements among the rural population which have had the courage and intelligence to migrate to the town are the cream of rural society; that those who have remained are both physically and mentally inferior to those who have gone. This is not entirely borne out by the evidence. Even the latest enquire into mental deficiency which seemed to prove a much higher rate of mental deficiency in rural than in urban areas must be accepted with caution.

Nevertheless the effect of migration upon the rural population in such matters as education, health, recreation, transport, and the maintenance of social relation has been little short of disastrous. The low density of population has made costs so heavy that the social services have been difficult and even inadequate. Particularly has this been borne out in rural education and the health of the school child. As we are not dealing with education in this section, I will confine myself to the question of health.

Education for Health: Everyone will agree that health education must begin from the earliest years of the child's life. The social organization for this kind of education is very complete in urban areas but in the countryside much of that service, which in the town has come to be regarded as the right of the individual and the duty of the local authority to provide, is in the countryside still too often in the hands of voluntary bodies. That these voluntary bodies have done

their work gallantly is not to be gainsaid, but the constant struggle for money and the fight to maintain a health service with an inadequate personnel constantly militates against the ideals which publicly-minded people have in view.

The work of the country nursing associations, for long the pioneer organization in health education, has been magnificent. Their endeavours to encourage and develop district and cottage nursing and to meet as far as possible the requirements of the Mid-Wives' Registration Act has been unremitting. Gradually the statutory bodies are developing the work of health education for young children through the County Maternity and Child Welfare Committees. This is done by the appointment of Health Visitors; the setting up of maternity and child welfare centres; the medical supervision and advice for expectant and nursing mothers and for infants and children under five years of age. The best of the county areas are now working out schemes parallel to those found in all urban areas.

Health education in the schools is carried out through the medical inspection of school children. The work is in the hands of the Chief School Medical Officers and his assistants, the school nurses. But it will be readily understood that where wide distances have to be travelled in order to get from one school to the next and where the staffing of the School Medical Service Department is not as generous as it might be, children in rural schools do not get the same facilities for treatment as children in urban areas. Much of the work devolves upon the teachers in the schools, who in county areas do many things such as weighing, measuring, reporting on cleanliness and even preliminary tests for eyesight and hearing which would never be expected from a teacher in an urban area. Yet who will deny that education for health in school depends upon many other things than the work of the School Medical Officer. With the best will in the world the teacher cannot give adequate education in the bad buildings and with the inferior playgrounds to which she and her children are condemned. Defective lighting is responsible for much poor eyesight among children attending

rural schools, defective heating and ventilation for coughs, colds and many bronchial complaints; defective building for rheumatism, while poor sanitation has been on more than one occasion responsible for serious epidemics. There are rural schools, the playgrounds of which render any attempt to take serious physical training not merely impossible but dangerous. Yet gradually these bad conditions are being eliminated.

The health education of those who have left school is largely in the hands of voluntary bodies although some counties arrange for lectures on health topics and will gladly send the County Medical officer to any organization desirous of having such a lecture.

Naturally the County Authority must make provision for the prevention and treatment of all forms of tuberculosis, the control and prevention of infectious disease and the early treatment of venereal disease. There are special facilities in many areas for the treatment and training of infants with such physical defects as blindness, deafness, mental deficiency and crippling deformities. But actually the lack of orthopedic treatment and the after-care of children who suffer from such crippling defects is very inadequate. There are a large number of authorities who have no scheme at all for dealing with children who are so affected. Another form of public service which is very incomplete in rural areas is the school dental service. Some authorities have now established a dental van fully equipped with everything necessary for the inspection of teeth, for necessary extraction, and for fillings. Having in view the serious effect of bad teeth upon the general health, this is an omission which one would hope to see made good as nearly as possible.

Education for Leisure: The number of organizations providing for recreative activities for those who live in the countryside is legion. The place of honour must be given to the Rural Community Councils and to the British Institute of Adult Education. These two bodies between them either give or organize, if the rural communities take advantage of it, sufficient educational and recreational activities to make

a very full and complete life for those who live in the countryside. Take for example, three of the activities of the Rural Community Councils music, folk-dancing and drama. In many counties periodic tours are arranged for distinguished professional artists including cellists, violinists, pianists and vocalists. The object of these concerts is to provide in the villages opportunities for hearing good music. Explanatory talks are given before each item and the audiences are encouraged to select a programme. In villages where public concerts are arranged for the evening, free afternoon concerts to the school children are offered and free concerts are also given in hospitals and Poor Law Institutions.

Lecture demonstrations in folk-dancing are arranged and courses in English and folk music. The growth of the musical festival, the backbone of which is the village, has encouraged a keen competitive spirit among those who live in villages in choral work, verse-speaking, village orchestras, and folk-dancing.

But the most striking growth is in the dramatic activity. The demand for the organization of this kind of work is spreading rapidly in all villages and the Little Theatre movement has done more to revive interest in the drama and in flesh and blood acting than any other movement of recent times. There are very few villages which do not in some way or another produce a play sometime during the year. There are few cottage homes which do not have their wireless sets and in many country schools children get their first education in listening to the wireless. Many villages have wireless listening groups and the special talks arranged by the Central Committee for Group Listening are greatly appreciated. The subject of these talks is varied. The coming of the wireless to the countryside has not only been a great recreational but a great educational factor in the development of the rural community.

Yet in these days, the men and women born and bred in the countryside do not find their sole recreation within the limits of the village. The whist drive and dance at the club or institute, cricket or football on the village green, the

enthusiasm for choral, dramatic and adult education classes, the tradition of those who peal the bells from the church belfry, is not now the limit of their ideas for recreation, especially for the younger generation. Transport, especially the bus services, has ended the isolation of the village. Certainly once a week the busy mother, the wife of the farm labourer, finds her greatest form of recreation in going to the market town to buy her provisions for the week from the chain-stores. If the bus time-table suits her convenience she can visit the pictures and share with the urban population the education and recreation which the cinema gives to old and young alike. Those who find delight in reading are not bound by the limitations of the County Library Scheme because they can get their books at any good circulating library. For the young people born in the countryside, transport makes it possible for them to work either on the land or in the town; to find their recreation either in the village or away from it. While by a strange reversal, transport and the ownership of a car gives to the jaded city worker the best recreation of all, a cottage in the country where he can spend at least his week-ends or even live after a long day's work in town. So although we may talk about education for health and recreation in the countryside, rapidly changing patterns of thought and rapidly dissolving landmarks in England make anything that one says almost out-of-date before it is uttered.

Rural Education in Hawaii

Mr. Oren E. Long

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Hawaii is an integral part of the United States. Its status as a territory is similar to that experienced by Ohio, Nebraska, California or any other state before admission to the Union. Like them, Hawaii expects to be admitted as a state. This expectation is based on the social and economic progress which is now going on and more particularly on the work of the public school system. While there are many imperfections in the educational programme, it is believed that certain trends and accomplishments particularly in relation to rural education are worthy of presentation to this Conference.

Hawaii is primarily agricultural. The cultivation of sugar cane, pineapples and coffee form the basis of its prosperity. Fifty-six out of every hundred workers gainfully employed are connected with the soil. Until recent times all common labour was performed by alien workers. These came from China, Portugal, Japan, Korea and the Philippines. As one group retired from the soil or returned to their native land, their places were taken by new arrivals.

Fortunately for Hawaii, this situation no longer exists. As alien workers retire, their places are now taken by their sons—a generation of citizens of the United States by birth, educated in the public schools and decidedly American in their interests and way of living. Like others of their generation in America, as well as in most other countries, these young citizens are enamoured of urban life. For the following reasons they tend to drift to the city: a feeling that agricultural work is essentially dull; that country life is unattractive and that its educational and cultural advantages are not comparable to those of the city; an expectation that

a better economic status may be had in the city. Unfortunately a great many are not realizing this hope. Unemployment relief, common to many cities, is sufficient evidence that not every would-be city worker, even in this age of industrialization, can be absorbed.

This situation—this drift to the city—is accepted by the schools of Hawaii as an educational challenge. The problem is that of making youth intelligent toward the opportunities of rural life. This effort is made entirely on the basis of fact.

So long as rural life is looked upon as dull routine, barren of those social and economic advantages that make for satisfying living rather than mere existence, it is worse than useless to use propaganda or resort to glorification of something that does not exist. Instead of this, it has been the policy of the public schools and the other social agencies to admit frankly that progress in the rural communities has lagged, that life there is not as attractive as it should be—but that with the active co-operation of the rural districts improvements can be made. This attitude has been accepted by industry and all social and governmental agencies. Real progress has resulted.

Hawaii's rural schools are as good as her city schools. This is due largely to the wise provisions for a Territorial-wide control and financial support of education rather than control and support by local communities. The result is that the rural school plant is comparable to that of the city; the length of the school day and the school year is the same; the same educational supplies and equipment are available; certification requirements for teachers are the same—for the past three years no applicant with less than five years' training above graduation from high school has been appointed; and teachers serving in the most isolated and economically poorest district receive the same compensation as teachers doing comparable work in the city of Honolulu.

The programme of studies and school activities in rural districts have undergone greater modifications during recent years than those of the city school. While the traditional subjects have not been eliminated there have been important

adjustments in time allotments. Teachers and administrators are encouraged to study the local situation and to give consideration to peculiar conditions that exist in meeting the interests and needs of pupils. Vocational work has been somewhat more extensively developed. Music, elementary art and appreciation qualities receive much the same emphasis.

Above all, those responsible for the work of the rural schools have guarded against any form of pupil exploitation. While we are vitally concerned in seeing rural industry prosper, we do not operate the schools in the interest of that industry except as intelligence, habits of industry and desirable attitudes contribute to all phases of community life. We want the boy and girl of the country to know the advantages and limitations of both country life and city life and then have all the freedom possible in a democracy to contribute and to find happiness in accordance with his best judgment. Through study and frank discussion we want him to be aware of the inadequacies of rural life and to have the courage to co-operate with others in attempting to make improvements. Every effort is made to have young people feel that there is something for them to do.

Vital economic factors such as wages and the conditions under which the labourer works must be left to industrial leaders. In this brief paper I have stressed only one thought. The rural schools of Hawaii are as good as her city schools.

uncertificated and 87.5% of the 6,291 supplementary teachers.

Let me say in conclusion and I am merely stating my own opinion, that given good buildings, properly designed, equipped and adequate in size, given properly qualified, ample and generous staffing, we should hear little today about the unsatisfactory nature of the rural school.

Organized Rural Life Improvement in Hawaii:

With Special Reference to Health Activities

Mr. Frank E. Midkiff

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The Territory of Hawaii is a small place but it is an integral part, a territory of the United States of America, and it is the cross-roads of the Pacific. In its rural industries, chiefly through organized agriculture, it ranks high among the best agricultural areas of the world.

The Territory of Hawaii has a population of 370,000, not counting the military. There is one important city, Honolulu, whose population is about 140,000 and another small city, Hilo, whose population is about 20,000. Hence 230,000 or over three-fifths (62%) of the people of this territory live in rural districts. Most of the people in the rural districts of Hawaii live in villages of 100 to 2,500, though a few villages are somewhat larger. The source of about 90% of the wealth of Hawaii is in products taken from the rural district. The people of Hawaii realize that they must make rural life attractive. They are attempting to keep the people

in the rural districts, to check the the city-ward movements, and further to encourage the surplus population of the city to move to the rural districts where there is adequate employment. Hawaii, like most rural areas, is in the fortunate position of having enough work for all her people and enough people to do the necessary work. The question then is how to establish conditions such that the people will reside happily in the rural districts where most of the work exists. Although there is a very intense use of the 85% of the island area in agriculture, there are great areas that are now pasture lands and forest slopes that could care for many thousands more than now live in Hawaii. The two cities, Honolulu and Hilo, are already too big for their economic set-up, but the rural areas await man-power and intelligence and need more people.

To balance properly urban and rural populations requires creating such conditions in the rural districts that the people will prefer to live in the rural districts or at least be equally willing to live in the rural districts as compared with the city.

Conditions of this modern day, therefore, favour long-term, wise planning to balance our rural-urban population.

But here enters the fundamental problem of sociability. This includes all forms of social contacts and the educative and personality developing features of people coming into contact with other people. Can the rural districts furnish adequate sociability and social contacts with all the personal values that such contacts engender?

Centralized Rural Villages: Hawaii's answer to this is the modern, attractive, democratic, rural village. The Territory is definitely going in for centralization. It is planning rural villages of a size adequate to furnish sociability and social contacts, and to justify the maintenance of cultural features that equal those of the city.

Accepting Professor Thomas' analysis that the four fundamental human desires are Recognition, New Experience, Mastery, and Safety and Security, Hawaii is checking the activities of the city that meet these desires and is moving

to arrange such activities in the rural districts.

In the field of Recognition, Hawaii is using the press, the radio, and the public assembly to grant rural people their full share of notice and reward. She is working to develop the united voice of the rural people so that these people will participate in government and management. She is increasing rural incomes through higher wages and bonuses. She is increasing the percentage of skilled and directive operations in the rural districts. She is developing new rural processing operations to add to her raw material production, for it is in processing and financing that the largest rewards and returns have been found. Many more skilled positions are being created in rural agriculture, mechanization is rapidly proceeding, scientific work is being carried on by employers of an educated type, and new refining and processing of agricultural products are evolving. This is resulting in a steady rise of individual income, which in turn is enabling rural people to possess themselves of the fruits of learning and finer culture.

In caring for the second-mentioned fundamental human desire—Mastery—Hawaii is aiding agriculturalists to overcome pests and disease, drought and flood. She is working to enlarge leaseholds, extend tenure and increase land ownership by farmers. She is establishing credit unions and co-operatives for producers and consumers. She is improving transportation facilities and lowering rates, and is developing a good marketing system. She is conducting a current crop survey and affording advice regarding monthly demands for various crops. She is developing new varieties of crops and is securing crops specially adapted to her climate, soils, and varying degrees of water availability.

She is encouraging rural individuals to aspire and make great efforts and is making provisions so that she will be wisely directed. She furnishes scientific consultation service in all phases of agriculture and rural life.

How can the rural districts satisfy the human desire for New Experience? Usually life in the country is humdrum and monotonous; it has been far from exciting and has been

void of novelty. It has lacked romance.

Hawaii is trying to provide opportunities for valuable new experience in rural living. She is encouraging efforts to mechanize agriculture and large numbers of people are bending their energies to invent new devices and machines and are operating these new inventions. She is devising new methods of irrigating and of conserving water; she is studying each area carefully and is discovering new and more valuable uses for each area. She is creating new creative activities and is developing new forms of community service and citizenship. She is enabling the rural people to enjoy new cultural facilities—libraries, art treasures and studios, craft and hobby shops, radio shops and stations, automobiles and other experiences lacking for rural residents heretofore. She is affording new rural high schools and continuation classes, and is carrying on a wide range of adult education courses in the rural districts.

In the field of Safety and Security, Hawaii really has become advanced as compared with most rural areas. It is the general policy of industrialized agriculture to furnish attractive homes as prerequisites to employees. On reaching retirement age or on becoming incapacitated during term of employment, the employee of industrial agriculture is continued in his home and is allowed water, fuel, light, and medical service, including hospitalization in addition to a cash income based on years of service and number of dependents. While an employee, he and his family are assured free medical attention, and scientific care is given to keep him and his community in good health. He has his own garden, with fertilizer and water provided therefore. He is able and encouraged to save money; his living expenses are reduced to a very small minimum, thus aiding him in saving money. Also industrial agriculture in Hawaii has a policy of year-round work for all its employees except those extras needed for the peak of pineapple harvesting and canning each summer. Lay-offs in rural agriculture are almost unknown and tenure of employment is a thing that causes no normal employee any concern.

An idea of Hawaii's economic foundation may be gained from surveying her shipments of Hawaiian products to the mainland United States for the year 1936. The total to the mainland United States was \$122,510,411. Of this \$67,975,548 was in sugar, \$51,979,755 in pineapples.

During the year 1936 Hawaii received from mainland America goods to the value of \$85,743,998 and from foreign countries to the value of \$6,699,719.

Industrialized Agriculture in Hawaii: About 99% of all the \$122,500,000 worth of agricultural shipments to mainland America is produced by agriculturists who are organized on a basis that is substantially like that of a large manufacturing industry. In addition to mainland shipments Hawaii produces for local consumption agricultural products to the extent of approximately \$25,000,000 each year. Most of the agricultural products locally consumed are grown by small independent farmers and 84% is produced by industrialized agriculture.

Production by both small farmers and industrialized farms is increasing. It is probable that the percentage produced by the small farmers will gain slowly on that produced by industrialized agriculture, since definite efforts are being made to increase the quantity of products consumed locally and industrialized agriculture does not care to compete with small farmers in the local field.

New peoples have come to Hawaii to replace the decreasing Hawaiians. Agriculture definitely has been responsible for bringing these new peoples to the Territory. Foreign diseases decreased the Hawaiians terrifically; also the Hawaiians did not choose to work according to plantation, regular work rhythms and requirements. So the sugar industry went abroad for personnel.

Population Trends Numerically: One-third of all marriages of 1932 were such that the children will be of mixed blood. The original Hawaiians have been to a large extent replaced by imported peoples working in the sugar industry.

There have been successive waves of racial immigrants. The Chinese wave first, then small waves of South Islanders,

Scandinavians, Americans—constant waves of these—Russians, larger waves of Portuguese, and the two great flood waves of Japanese and Filipinos.

Population increases are now the normal increases of births over deaths.

The labour immigration waves are now stopped, since February, 1932, because Hawaii now has many unemployed adults. Indeed, there is to a certain degree a movement from the Islands.

The chief features of population tendencies at present may be summed up as follows: (1) Hawaii's population growth has been checked and Dr. Romanzo Adams of the University of Hawaii estimates that during the present decade there will probably be a net loss due to large returns of Filipinos, after fulfilling labour contracts, and of Chinese, aged persons returning to their homelands; (2) Great gain of part-Hawaiians, and a substantial gain of all with Hawaiian blood even with losses among the pure Hawaiian group are noted. The Hawaiian blood is gaining more rapidly than that of any other group. Since this is a large group anyway, the political and social significance of this gain is considerable; (3) The Japanese increase is slowing down; (4) The Filipino group is decreasing by several thousands each year, through emigration; (5) The Chinese are increasing but very slightly; (6) The "Other Caucasians," the chief leadership group in Hawaii, are increasing comparatively slowly.

The Japanese at present make up 40.5% of Hawaii's population; the Filipinos 14.5%; together they are more than half, or 55%. The Oriental groups—Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, and Korean—constitute 65% of the total. The Filipinos have increased very rapidly, chiefly by importation, averaging 1867 per year from 1910-1920 and 4202 per year from 1920-1930. Since 1932 Filipino departures have exceeded all types of population decrease of this group. The Japanese have increased quite rapidly, since 1910, by births only, with the exception of "picture bride" importations, but their rate of increase is slowing down very perceptibly. The Asiatic-Hawaiians are increasing very rapidly,—nearly twice as fast

as the Caucasian-Hawaiians and three times as fast as the next most rapid group—Porto Ricans. The Chinese increase accelerated up to 1930, due to the fact that more Chinese marriageable females have reached child-bearing age and fewer Chinese males are marrying Chinese-Hawaiian females; since 1930 the Chinese statistics show only slight gains.

The Hawaiians have been decreasing slightly during the last twenty years prior to 1930, whereas the part-Hawaiians are rapidly increasing. This decrease can be accounted for through intermarriage of pure-Hawaiians with part-Hawaiians and others, thus partially preventing pure-Hawaiian births as replacements through death. The Spanish are decreasing very largely through migration to California. The same applies to the Portuguese during the past ten years.

The Hawaiians have rapidly continued to leave unskilled plantation labour and have turned chiefly to the "other skilled trades." The part-Hawaiians also are giving up plantation labour and are becoming independent farmers, farm foremen, retail dealers, and skilled tradesmen. Several have clerical and public service positions.

Several Portuguese have recently become farm foremen, a few more are getting into professions and retail stores, and many are in the "other skilled trades." The same applies to the Porto Ricans, except that these persons are not yet in the professions.

The "other" Caucasians up until 1934 were turning from all types of agricultural work to the professions, retail businesses, skilled trades, public service, and clerical occupations. The same applies to the Chinese.

The Japanese up until 1934 turned from plantation labour to small farming, farm foremen work, the professions, the skilled trades, and clerical work, while a goodly number are now securing government jobs.

The Koreans, though few, tend to move as have the Japanese.

It is the Filipinos who were seen in 1930 to furnish nearly three-fourths of the unskilled farm labourers and to have increased in this field so rapidly during the decade. Never-

theless, it must be observed that some of them are also becoming independent farmers and foremen, retail dealers, skilled tradesmen, and even entering government and clerical fields.

There is a growing tendency, due to Hawaii's definite programme of rural life improvement for young people just leaving schools to consider and to enter agriculture. These are taking up both small farming and industrialized farming positions, enabling both fields to expand.

This last named tendency is a necessity in Hawaii as it must be in all areas that are basically agricultural and that have found their cities becoming too big and too expansive—with unemployment and its attendant idleness, undernourishment, delinquency, and crime bills following from unemployment and congestion.

Public and Private Agencies in Rural Life Improvement: In Hawaii law and order, education, health, welfare, postal service, and water supply are largely public functions. Still we have some private detective and police services, our kindergartens are yet all private, most of our health work is a co-operation of private medical services and public health services; our welfare, now just becoming established by the Government on a Territory-wide basis, still requires private welfare agencies and financial support, and our express, light, fuel, power and transportation services are all private enterprises.

Without the great support and complementary aid of private corporations, foundations, and individuals our public services of nearly all sorts in Hawaii would be inadequate indeed. It is felt that changes to full government service and control should be made very slowly and only as private initiative proves inadequate or limiting to the best interests of all people concerned.

The decided tendency of recent years has been to increase public services through taxing private enterprise for support thereof. But no one should be led to believe that Hawaii is intending to absolve private persons or organizations from the splendid services they have been rendering, and merge

all such under governmental direction and operation.

This is particularly true in the rural districts where industrialized agriculture is doing so much to improve the life of the people. Plantation physicians, nurses, welfare workers, recreational, personnel, librarians and stores are being urged to afford ever-increasing services to the people of the rural districts. And it is through the services of the plantations that Hawaii has been able to present such a good showing when compared with conditions of rural life in mainland America or rural districts of other countries.

The great problem confronting Hawaii is to organize all agencies so that co-operation and correlation of work will result.

Chief Public Agencies: The work of the leading six public agencies in improving rural life is in brief as follows:

Department of Public Instruction: In Hawaii there is no discrimination to the detriment of rural schools in so far as length of school term, attendance requirements, teachers' salaries, and school equipment are concerned. One serious factor that is now being corrected is that heretofore most rural children have had to go the cities to receive their secondary education. In this way they have become inclined to stay in the city. Now Hawaii is establishing secondary schools of high standards but with suitable curriculum adaptations in all rural areas. Also the rural schools are evolving activities that better tend to disclose the advantages of rural life, to provide co-operation of school and community in improving rural conditions, and that insure for rural people the cultural advantages that formerly were available mainly to city residents.

Thus we are finding continuation schools for young people who are employed, wherein students receive four hours of instruction per week while drawing pay from the plantation employers and where free or low-cost evening courses are furnished. We find free adult education courses in vocational subjects, including cooking and diet, textiles and sewing, weaving, shop work, horticulture, agriculture, and animal and poultry husbandry. We find Smith-Hughes classes in

agriculture and home economics for school children, involving co-operation of school and plantations, small farms, and homes. We find a comprehensive health education programme:

Department of Public Health: In the field of health it is quite impossible to treat the part rendered by public agencies separate from that performed by private agencies, and an attempt to do so would merely confuse. Hence the whole field will be summarized for both types of agencies.

The Territory has a Board of Health appointed by the Governor. There are seven members of the Board. There is an Executive who is an experienced medical and public health man. There are the following bureaus, each with its chief and its complement of personnel: vital statistics, laboratory, communicable disease control, tuberculosis control, maternal and infant hygiene, public health nursing; and sanitary engineering, sanitation, and food inspection.

The Department of Public Instruction has a division of school hygiene, carrying on health education and co-operation with the Board of Health in immunization campaigns and communicable disease control.

There is a public commission for conservation of sight and commissions for hospitals and settlements (leprosy, and mental diseases).

Indigents are cared for both at public and at private expense. The tendency is to decrease commitments to institutions and to aid established homes that are willing to aid in such services.

The plantations maintain hospitals and the service of physicians, hospitals, nurses, and visiting nurses for their personnel as prerequisites.

The private welfare institutions, including a large city settlement centre, and the private social service bureaus do much health work.

The Federal Government maintains a quarantine service and aids in biological and bacteriological services in the Territory.

In addition to the administrative staff, bureau chiefs, and central personnel of the Territorial Department of Public

Health, and not including leprosy work, there are in the field in Hawaii 33 part-time government physicians (all of whom also have private practices) and 48 public health visiting nurses. The sugar and pineapple plantations for their total personnel of about 120,000 persons employ 29 physicians, many of whom are part-time government physicians, 55 hospital nurses, and 27 visiting nurses. Palama Settlement, a private institution in Honolulu has for the service of the public one full-time, four part-time and ten special service physicians, ten dentists, and 17 visiting nurses. This means one visiting nurse to every 4,022 people for the Territory as a whole.

There are about 230,000 people in the rural districts. For these there are 67 visiting public health and plantation nurses: this is one visiting nurse for every 3,433 people. Honolulu with 17 Palama nurses and only eight public health nurses has a ratio of one nurse to every 5,600 people. In nursing service the rural districts thus fare better than the city due to the health programme of the plantations. The objective for Hawaii is one visiting with public health qualifications for every 3,000 people and the number of public and private visiting nurses is being increased about four or five each year toward that ratio. These increases are being made through Federal Social Security Act (Maternal and Infant Hygiene Service), the Territorial Department of Public Health, and the private plantations. An attempt is being made to correlate all visiting nurse services and all health programmes and activities.

The Chambers of Commerce have substantial funds which have been accumulated from voluntary taxes paid by merchants on goods from abroad passing over Hawaii's wharves. These funds are used to prevent epidemics, fight plagues, make health surveys, reduce mosquitos, and aid in the health programme of Palama Settlement and other health agencies.

Two comprehensive surveys have been made by Professor Ira V. Hitchcock of Yale University, using standards of the American Public Health Association. The first, financed by the United Welfare Fund, was made in 1928; the second, financed by the Honolulu Chamber of Commerce, was made

in 1935. A survey of the medical and psychiatric problems of Hawaiians being made at this time. All these surveys are followed by definite recommendations. Interested citizens co-operate with existing health agencies to attain the objectives set. Great progress is being made annually. In 1935 Honolulu won the inter-city health contest for cities of over 100,000, carried on by the United States Chamber of Commerce. This was for greatest progress made in health for the year.

Federal Social Security Act funds supplement Territorial funds to carry on maternal and infant hygiene clinics and demonstrations, to enable health workers in service to take refresher and special training courses, to supply qualified health lecturers, and to carry on a campaign of plague control.

The Tuberculosis Association sells Christmas seals and raises funds from private subscriptions to carry on educational projects against Tuberculosis. This is in co-operation with the Territorial Tuberculosis Bureau and the Health Education Division of the Department of Public Instruction.

Private foundations and individuals generously contribute each year to carry on various health services in private sanatoria and by private social and health organizations.

On the plantations employees and their families are furnished free medical examinations, immunization treatments for diphtheria, typhoid, and syphilis, and dispensary and clinic services as well as needed free hospitalization. A careful campaign has resulted in having nearly all plantation births in hospitals under skilled care.

In the public schools children are taught health and hygiene and all are examined on entrance and at Grade IV. In the future all will be examined also at Grade VII and on leaving school. This will include Mantoux skin tests and X-ray of positive tuberculosis reactors.

A course in health education and teaching is to be required of all future candidates for a degree in education and urged for all teachers now in service. This should greatly aid health education in the schools. The University of Hawaii now has courses in public health nursing.

All children in the schools are immunized against diphtheria and small pox unless such immunization has been given in infancy or in pre-school years. Deaths from these causes are exceedingly rare of recent years. There was not a single death from diphtheria in 1935. Cases and deaths since 1930 show definite studies in combatting this disease: 1930: 386 cases, 37 deaths; 1931: 326 cases, 33 deaths; 1932: 233 cases, 25 deaths; 1933: 171 cases, 10 deaths; 1934: 91 cases, 5 deaths; 1935: 53 cases, no deaths; 1936: 78 cases, 7 deaths.

A comprehensive programme against tuberculosis is being adopted for the public and private health agencies of the Territory.

Medical Programme Includes: Routine examination of all contacts with known cases; co-operation with private physicians, hospitalization; pneumo clinics; a general preventive programme in child health conferences, schools and industry by tests, X-ray and examination.

The Social Programme Includes: Definite plans for each family with contacts, positive reactors or patients to be hospitalized; adequate budgets; rehabilitation; housing.

Health Education in homes, clinics, schools, sanitarium; by private physicians; for private physicians; and for the public.

In schools, teachers are to receive health education as a required course for a degree; every class in school to be a health class to an adequate degree.

For the Public, there is a programme similar to that of Detroit. The steps being taken along the Detroit plan, as outlined in the pamphlet *How TB Can Be Wiped Out in Your Community*, published by the Country Magazine, New York, U.S.A., include the following:

Formation of a special Tuberculosis committee in the Council of Social Agencies. This committee includes representatives of the public health department, tuberculosis association, and each agency and sanitarium dealing with tuberculosis. Analysis is being made of present efforts and ways to improve them. Costs of Tuberculosis are being calculated. All available data regarding the extent and causes of Tuberculosis in Hawaii are being assembled. A plan is

Health Section

being mapped out to arouse public support of every physician, and put everyone to work against Tuberculosis. A lot of the press and over the radio a study of proper legislation is being made by the Legislature; this will promote a Territory-wide campaign.

All discovered cases of leprosy are treated by territorial law. Leprosy in the Territory is reduced.

There is a territorial law requiring all adults with positive sputum, but people do not yet support this law adequately and it is not enforced properly.

By health education at clinics and private physicians and visiting nurses, infant mortality rate is being lowered.

The infant death rate has been declining in the past several years: 1929-10 106; 1934-77; 1935-64; 1936-70.

The maternal death-rate for 1936 was 164 per 1000 live births and still births; for 1936 the rate was 392 per 1000. This rate is much higher in Honolulu than in the rural areas, where the plantations render such a large part of the total services to residents.

Hawaii requires regular annual examinations of mid-wives and conducts classes for them once each month.

There are 120 child health conference clinics in Hawaii and 1,957 conferences were held in 1936 (1,476 with physicians present). The total enrolment was 11,062 with a total attendance of 34,102. This includes Honolulu (20 clinics, 938 conferences, enrolment 6,376, attendance 18,850). Thus the child health conferences are quite extensive in the rural districts.

There is health instruction in the homes also, a total of 14,864 visits being made by public health nurses in 1936, with about the same number made by plantation nurses.

The visits by public health nurses were divided as follows: infant 6,170, pre-school 4,248, high school 3,362, adult 1,084.

There are approximately 50 maternity conference clinics

Education Section

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in the Territory, the great majority being in the rural districts. The attendance runs about 3,000 per year.

A total of 1,658 new cases of Tuberculosis were discovered and referred to for nursing supervision during 1936. One thousand three hundred sixty of these were discovered by the efficient rural health work. Eight hundred eighty-four were contacts, of whom 714 were discovered in rural districts. Three hundred eighty-nine chest clinics were held with a total attendance of 5,968. There were more cures than deaths in tuberculosis for 1936. The tuberculosis death-rate is increasing for the city but dropping definitely in the rural districts.

Nursing service was supplied to 165 schools during 1936 as follows. visits 4,743, children inspected, 34,035 (out of a total of about 83,000), children contacted 31,872, treatments given 12,924, children referred to family physician 7,840, children referred to family dentist 1,811, indigent children referred to government physicians 3,444, conferences with parents at school 1,890, conferences with principals, 3,609, conferences with teachers 10,608, visits to parents of school children 2,468, classes taught 1,234. Almost three-fourths of this work was done in the rural districts, which means a greater attention to rural districts than to the city in this service since somewhat less than 60% of the school children are in the rural districts.

In general, counting plantation health services, about half the expenditures for health in Hawaii are made voluntarily by private agencies. There has been a steady improvement of health conditions and a lowering of mortality and morbidity rates during the past nine years since the first Hitchcock survey of 1928.

Here again a great problem is to organize all health work so that all grounds may be covered to the best advantage.

University of Hawaii: The efforts of the University of Hawaii to improve rural life are proving to be quite effective. These are chiefly along the following lines: (a) Agricultural courses for University students; (b) Home demonstration group work where food and cooking, clothing and sewing, child care, home furnishing, and budgeting are taught, and

(c) Agricultural Extension Service carried on by county agents including agricultural advice, supplying of seed and good varieties of plants and animals, 4-H club work for rural boys and girls, monthly crop census showing estimates of crops in cultivation and of market requirements, and assistance in marketing problems. The sugar and pineapple industries carry on their own full scientific services privately. The agricultural department has been responsible for directing work costing approximately a half million dollars of AAA (Federal Government) funds for experimental work in disease control, pest eradication, stock feed improvement, variety improvement, etc., during 1936.

Land and Water Departments: There are territorial offices for making loans to farmers and for studying and attempting methods to increase water for domestic and irrigation purposes in the rural areas.

Recreation Commission: The public recreation commission supervises the programmes of public parks and playgrounds and conducts courses for volunteer and paid leaders for such recreational centres.

Library of Hawaii: The public library system of the Territory co-operates with local communities to establish branch libraries, and to serve these and rural homes through automobile library service of books, magazines, and periodicals.

Private Agencies: Rural Community Associations for Organizing Public and Private Rural Life Improvement: Hawaii is developing and carrying on an effective rural organization known as the Community Association. These community associations unite the citizens and existing organizations of the rural districts in a co-operative effort to accomplish the improvement of all phases of the life of the district. This involves a careful survey of the district, careful planning to meet these needs, and then co-operative action throughout the months and years to see that conditions are improved. Under the aegis of the word "community" people unite and express their citizenship in practical ways.

Things that have been neglected are undertaken and successfully accomplished. Month by month rural life is

improved.

The Community Association has its Advisory Committee which is composed of the officers, delegates at large, and two delegates from each member organization in the community. This Advisory Committee meets each month and considers needs as presented by each organization schools, churches, clubs, films, and all racial groups. It becomes a practical survey and planning group.

It then allocates work to standing committees which usually include committees on health, library extension, school-community relationships, adult education, recreation, home improvement, art, crafts, community beautification, and public programmes. The standing committees have members from various racial groups and organizations.

In the community associations so far established in Hawaii it has been very encouraging to observe the growth of co-operation with corresponding increase of results and improvement of rural life. We have seen fine programmes arranged in which many hundreds of people participate; we have seen attendance at health clinics increased and clinics improved; we have seen libraries made available throughout rural districts, home classes carried on; art, music, and craft work stimulated; recreation expanded wisely, and in many other fields we have seen people demonstrating fine, useful citizenship by improving their community.

In the schools we have seen classes in cooking, sewing, poultry husbandry, weaving, shop work, and horticulture provided both for students and adults. We have seen fine grafted fruit trees furnished by school groups for each family in the community. We have observed a vital integration of the programme of school and community. We have seen school children improving their community areas, and in turn we have seen the citizens uniting to serve the schools and improve their schools' facilities. This is a great step forward in Hawaii.

The community association actually is securing the co-operation of all public and private organizations in the rural community, is co-ordinating their work, and is enabling

rural people much more effectively and rapidly to improve their social economic conditions.

Sugar and Pineapple Association: Both the sugar and pineapple industries have formed voluntary co-operation to promote their work. The various plantations exchange experiences and emulate each other in improving conditions for their employees. They are earnestly trying to interest young school graduates in joining their industries. Their personnel work is now rapidly expanding. They pay wages higher than other agricultural labourers in the United States receive and far higher than employees in the sugar industry elsewhere in the world receive. The real annual income of industrialized agriculture employees in Hawaii is high when compared with that of other American industries. This is in considerable part due to the fact that there are no "lay-offs". The plantations furnish as free prerequisites good houses, yards and gardens, water, light, fuel, medical service and hospitalization, and extensive recreational facilities and programmes. They are now conducting employee conferences, tending to afford greater recognition to employees and to stimulate participation in the affairs of the industry. They have a well established policy of continuous employment, accident and disability care, and retirement provisions.

These industries are mechanizing to eliminate drudgery, are centralizing their houses to form lovely villages, and are developing new processing industries to increase rural wealth and increase the number of stimulating occupations in the country.

Local Transportation Companies: Local water, rail, and truck transportation companies are co-operating with farmers in conducting a market known as the Farmers' Exchange, where island produce is handled on a wholesale basis. This service includes aid in sorting, grading, crating, shipping and distributing the products of farmers.

Tuberculosis Association: This private agency co-operates with the public tuberculosis bureau and carries on new investigations and experiments as part of the Islands' campaign against the "white plague."

Private Foundations. There are about a half dozen private foundations in Hawaii that have made their wealth largely from rural agricultural industry. These foundations recognize their obligations to the rural people and support the rural people and support the rural community associations and other welfare agencies serving the rural districts.

Academy of Arts. The Honolulu Academy of Arts furnishes exhibits, lecturers, and teachers of art to rural districts that form classes or groups interested in these subjects.

Adult Education Association: There is a central organization now co-operating with local organizations and schools, advising them and aiding them in carrying on a wide range of adult education courses. Most of these, except vocational courses carried on by the Department of Public Instruction, are financed by small tuition fees or are led by volunteer leaders without cost. This movement seems to be growing and increasing the interesting activities of rural people.

Chamber of Commerce: The Chamber of Commerce assists in health work. It has a committee whose duty it is to aid in the development of new industries. This committee is chiefly concerned with new industries in the agricultural field, including new processing steps which bring more money and higher pay and more interesting work to rural sections.

As an area that is largely agricultural Hawaii recognizes the necessity of making rural life more attractive than city life. To do this requires effective organization of the efforts of public and private agencies and of individuals. Health schools, adult education, leisure-time activities, recreation, sociability, and all phases of the economic and social life of rural people must be dealt with and improved. People need to be grouped in lovely rural villages where all really desirable features of the city are possible and where the disadvantages of the city are possible and where the disadvantages of congestion and unemployment are avoided.

Although still proceeding cautiously and in an experimental way, the Community Association of Hawaii seems to have demonstrated itself as a practicable instrument for organizing all efforts to improve rural life.

Contributed Paper

**Education in Undeveloped Rural
Communities**

Mr. Allan Hulsizer

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The necessity for relief and rehabilitation has directed attention in the United States of America toward the education of minority rural populations. These groups, though small in numbers individually, taken together total some millions of people. Democratic education has meant often identical education for all groups. At least in practice, materials, textbooks, methods and aims have all been, indiscriminately, alike. A change seems to be in progress. The greater emphasis recently given to certain principles in education has helped to effect this. In addition, the wide publicity given certain types of educational experiments has influenced professional thought as to rural education.

Recent emphasis on certain educational principles is changing the rural school. Outstanding has been the influence of such educational principles, as, "We learn to do by doing"; "Social beings are produced as a result of years of socialized activity." There has also been rather wide-spread acceptance of the principle that, "There is little transfer of training." "Education must begin within and be based upon the experience of the learner." Whole systems of reading texts and social studies' texts have been developed for city primary and elementary schools, on such urban topics, as the policeman and the fireman, the market and the harbour. For rural Indians, Mexicans, Negroes and isolated rural Whites such studies are obviously not within the experiences of the learner. The teacher in certain experimental

rural community schools has built the educational programme on the experiences of the children outside the school as well as on related, directed experiences within the school. Workers in education have become convinced that reading about bathing, for example, may have little influence on personal cleanliness; that it is imperative if habits of cleanliness are to be learned that frequent bathing take place under the direction of teacher or lay leader.

Professional educational leaders in increasing numbers believe in a rural school which offers a well rounded experience related to biology—caring for animals and plants—as well as the social and intellectual parts of these and other processes. The typical American farm has become so specialized and mechanized that there is little, if any, more opportunity for educational experience based on the parents' work, undirected by the teacher, than there is for the child in the city apartment where the support of the family comes from a foundry or a rayon factory.

A wider knowledge of certain educational experiments in community education re-enforces the tendency toward basing rural education on the life experiences of the learner, and on the promotion of education in community living. One hears of the improvement of community living all over the world due to the educational programme of the community school. The acquisition of literate skills is still an aim for children in these community schools, nor is it precluded for adults when they desire it. However, as has been said above, while in the past the formal school was satisfied with reading about the daily bath, the present community school takes perhaps a little less time for reading about cleanliness or anything else but takes plenty of time to see that the necessary habits are practised. Some of these habits are practised. Some of these habits are established under more ideal conditions than can be obtained in the poorer homes of the community in part but these cleanliness habits are practised with the same type of equipment as can be achieved in the one and two-room huts which represent the typical home of the majority of the families in the special rural

groups being considered. It is true that the modern rural school uses the microscope, scientific bulletins of State and National Departments. Instead of the long unbalanced academic school day which was typical of the old type of rural school, we have as the ideal, under the leadership of a college-bred man with practical farming experience, a well balanced programme for the whole community during twelve months of the year. Adults and older children form Home Improvement Associations which may take Thursday and Friday of the school week in summer to work in groups on one home after another. During the spring, summer and fall the teacher may work especially close to some lay leader in the development of gardens, and in the sharing and storing of the crops. The teacher may also be the initiator and most influential board member of the co-operative purchasing and producing organizations. In the Indian schools in particular, a significant part of the budget has always been appropriated for food and clothing. Under the present policy the parents help in the production of the school garden, which reduces the food item in the school budget. The school cow or flock of milk goats fills an important place. The children get the food and parents and children learn better care of domestic animals. Clothing is made at the school, and in the case of older girls dresses and aprons are largely made by the wearers. Where wool is available, certain areas are beginning to experiment in hand-woven homespun. With these activities are associated a background of popular and scientific literature which fills the needs of a small part of the group. Graduates of such schools, intelligent about life in the community, have more chance for better living than have students from schools with purely literary curricula.

The education accepts as a major premise that the learning process can best proceed in connection with actual projects in the fields of economics and home improvement. For many years the vocational aspects of making a living and home making have been developed in elementary and secondary schools. They have been, however, developed as

processes in a school. Usually this development has occurred within a class period. In the case of home economics and the building trades the processes have been developed in well-rounded experience patterns, as for example, in the practice cottage and the completed house. These class situations were, in their final analysis, developed apart from the purposes and life of the community.

A number of community school experiments in the United States have emphasized the study of processes in vocational agriculture, vocational house building, and other economic and home improvement ventures. During the spring and summer, students, instructors and lay leaders—often adults receiving training in short courses—have returned to the local community to carry out co-operative ventures on actual projects in the community. These experimental projects have received considerable impetus from leaders because of co-operation between Rehabilitation Programmes, and the educational leadership in the community.

Legislative action and administrative interest are forwarding the development of consumers' and producers' co-operatives. A typical producers' co-operative is in the process of formation among the women of one community. These women are borrowing a small sum of money under the new credit facilities to purchase linen which is hand-embroidered in native designs. These articles will be sold through a regional salesroom in the regional museum. This product as it appeals to a highly selected group, will also be sold through Fifth Avenue New York shops. Producers' poultry co-operatives, at Thanksgiving and Christmas because of excellent packing and grading, receive the top prices and reorders on the Chicago market. Local success has been achieved by producers' garden co-operatives. Those activities were in one case promoted by a field nurse, and in other cases by teachers and community leaders. The actual work was carried on with the assistance of lay leaders and workers. In the case of gardens the amount of teacher-time used during the actual school term was negligible. In the case of poultry, when marketing occurred

during the fall and winter, more teacher-time was used. The cleaning and dressing, however, was carried on by the whole community in one or two days before Thanksgiving and Christmas, under the direction of the teacher.

In addition to the foregoing type of community activities, there is evidence of another effort toward the promotion of economic independence on the part of the people through the school programme. A notable example of this has worked in one Community High School. Through the fall and winter and spring terms for a week at the time, the boys of the eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades have gone in small groups to cattle camps about 15 to 20 miles out on the range to take over the actual work of caring for the one thousand head of cattle owned by the school. A number of the graduates of the school who have had this experience were encouraged to return for a post-graduate course. These youths are being paid for their services with a certain number of calves. While working with the school hard, they are given time to care for their own stock. Furthermore, recent legislation and administrative follow-up plans are consolidating and rearranging the landholdings among the families in undeveloped communities. Perhaps community and home, because of traditional reasons long forgotten, are far from pasture and arable land. Perhaps blocks of land owned or leased by absentee owners interfere with the sound functioning of the community. Notice to vacate, while it has occasioned some grumbling and a few court fights, has usually accomplished its purpose. Pupils' opinion at large is giving nominal support to the good of the greatest number. Where the people of a community are prevented from the use of nearby land, it has often been found impossible to have them join work relief projects without breaking up school and home facilities in the old location. Either land use must be rearranged or communities must be moved to where land is available. The moving is often only short distances within the general neighbourhood. With some of the groups in question this moving is not a harsh administrative measure but is in keeping with the practices of

discouragements expressed in this literature show the common former times. Under the new plans whole community groups are being relocated in new homes near arable land, convenient to pasturage. Often materials for new homes can be found in the community. With some help in planning, but with skilled and unskilled labour from the community itself, houses, barns and corrals are being erected in the new and carefully chosen location. Local officers chosen by their fellows are given opportunity to function in the new set-up.

A long period of the practice of these procedures will be necessary in order to measure their permanent value. In the meantime they have been stimulating and revivifying the activity of teachers and community leaders. There is indication that a part of the school day for little children, for adults and for each group in the community be given to the furtherance of these projects, and to co-operation with Agricultural Extension, Rehabilitation and Credit Agencies in the promotion of the immediate welfare of children and adults. There is, however, intention on the part of most teachers and administrators to safeguard children from purposeless work on projects in which they are not really interested. There is every evidence of retaining a major portion of the school day during fall, winter and spring for learning and practice of skills which are not acquired so well in projects in the community. So far, there has been no real conflict, as an hour a day during the spring has sufficed to produce food for the children's own table and a surplus for sale. The value of such a programme can be measured in part by the social attitude of the children, as has been shown by the improvement in such attitudes in a number of sections where these projects have been carried on.

The discussion so far has dealt mostly with the material but the spiritual side has not been neglected. A wide range of literature, suitable for all groups has been collected and made available to adults and children carrying on these activities. In this way the children and adults are made aware of some of the expressions of authors and poets, who were engaged in carrying on the same types of activity. The

discouragements expressed in this literature show the common relationship of all human kind. Students in turn are encouraged to express themselves. These expressions take such form as newspaper articles and pictures. In some cases the walls of buildings are decorated with pictures dealing with the projected social and economic programme. The in-service training of teachers takes place where these varying and supplementary activities most nearly complement each other to produce the whole gamut of a well balanced, well-rounded community life. Where material and spiritual matters are blended and human beings are freed by improved material standards, it is hoped that the human spirit will likewise find higher levels of expression.

Rural Health Work of Near East Foundation

**As Demonstrated by the Project in the
Marathon Plain in
Greece and in Grecian Macedonia**

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(Based on Annual Reports Prepared by Dr. Harold B. Allen, Educational Director, and Alice G. Carr, R. N., LL.D., Public Director, Near East Foundation, and Forwarded by Dr. Barclay Acheson, Vice-President of Near East Foundation)

Genesis of Near East Foundation

America's response in leadership and dollars, whenever human need and suffering have manifested themselves, is partially explained by the blood relationship which she has

with other nations. All races have mingled, pioneered, and built together in the United States, so her cousins in other lands have a definite claim on her goodwill. In one instance, during the World War emergency, she mothered 132,000 orphans in the Near East and saved a million and a half refugees from starvation through the agency of Near East Relief. After the World War, the nations in the Near East undertook the slow and painful task of reconstruction. To meet the problem of helping to rebuild, the Near East Foundation was incorporated as successor to Near East Relief in 1930.

It has operated in harmony with the new philosophy of international philanthropy. It is determined to respect the traditions, aptitudes, and cultural heritage of gallant people. It has concentrated on co-operative undertakings designed to remove the causes of retarded growth and to stimulate indigenous growth. Near East Foundation does not believe in proselyting or in cultural penetration, but believes instead in a harmony of nations similar to the harmony of an orchestra, where each makes his contribution by playing his own part on a different instrument.

It is on this basis that the Near East Foundation has established its projects. Eastern Mediterranean countries were selected because the Near East Relief, which preceded the Near East Foundation, made it possible to utilize a great asset of momentum and goodwill in that area.

Rural Health Work, Near East Foundation

Near East Foundation looks upon the promotion of public health activities as a part of a general programme attacking the standard of living, and all of its public health projects are related to programmes for building up family income and living conditions in general.

Marathon Project

There existed in Greece a need for relating the graduates of the National School of Hygiene to work in rural areas as contrasted with the more articulate demands of the urban centres. Therefore, at the suggestion of the advisers to the National School of Hygiene of Greece, which included representatives of the Rockefeller Foundation, Near East Foundation undertook a demonstration of the first official rural health programme in Greece, equipped with visiting nurse graduates and sanitation workers from the National School of Hygiene. The selection of the Marathon plain followed a survey of ten possible areas of work in a radius within thirty miles of the city of Athens.

Location: The Marathon plain is the plain on which, in ancient times, Tetrapolis was situated, and where in 490 B.C. the Althenians defeated the Persians. It has been practically abandoned by inhabitants because of another enemy stronger than the Persians, malaria, which conquered the plain and destroyed many of the population. Ancient towns were abandoned, and the visitor of today, going through this area, will see only the famous Mound of the Heroic Dead on the Marathon battlefield and the ruins of some of the old places, Oenoi and Ramnous, with a scattering fringe of population who dare to live there, numbering 3,950. They dwell chiefly in the modern village of Marathon situated about 44 kilometres from Athens at the northern end of the plain, 11 kilometres long and 3-6 kilometres wide, running between the sea and the Pentellikos foothills.

The principal swamp covers an area of 2,500 acres, extremely difficult to drain because of the narrow margin of grade between it and the level of the sea.

The Distressed Situation. The economic effect of malaria is well understood. In one village surveyed by Near East Foundation in the Macedonia area of its work, approximately 9,000 working days a year were lost through illness, principally from malaria, among a total population of

approximately 800. The situation of the population in the Marathon plain was no better than this, and probably worse, with the summer work season interrupted by attacks of malaria.

The Approach: An old tavern in the village of Marathon was reconditioned to become the principal centre of the activities which, with this as a pivot, radiated into seven villages with subcentres in two villages. Since the work was primarily a medical problem, the base was a well-clinic which undertook an examination of all the population of the town of Marathon, instruction classes for the women in general health and care of children, distribution of quinine supplied by the Ministry of Hygiene, home visits by aides-visiteuses, and the use of cod liver oil, cocoa and phosphates in under-nourished cases. With this meeting the need for palliative work, an active preventive programme in malaria control was extended over the entire plain. With the use of oil, minor drainage, and the installation of Gambusia—top minnows which consume mosquito larvae—fourteen small-swamps, a considerable number of wells and the major swamp of Kato Souli, covering 2,500 acres, were controlled.

An interesting comparison is the fact that in the first year of the project, six kilograms of quinine were used for 1,763 persons and two tons of oil were applied to standing water. In the last season, only three kilograms and 231 grams of quinine were required for 3,953 persons, whereas the oil expended totalled seven tons.

As a preventive of fly-borne diseases, such as typhoid, dysentery, pneumonia, and tuberculosis, which contributed their share to the health problem of the villages in that area, household pit-latrines were installed at a cost of 145 drachmas, the equivalent of \$ 1.30, per latrine with the co-operation of the villagers. Animal refuse, which the villagers were accustomed to keep heaped near their houses, as the animals live many times in a part of the house or very nearby, was removed to the fields under town authority, supported by instruction of the population in the classes.

The staff consisted of the following: The part time of one

physician from Athens, the part time of an eye specialist supplied by the Ministry of Hygiene, the full time of the American Public Health Director, Miss Alice G. Carr, one general contact and executive worker, two graduate nurses, two aides-visiteuses, one sanitation worker.

It should be noted that a factor in Near East Foundation work is the enlistment of local enterprise, with idea of the project being continued by local initiative after the demonstration is completed. In this case, half of the Centre rent is provided by the community, certain medical supplies, swamp oil and personnel by the Ministry, and the Centre is recognized as a part of the public health system of Attica and Boetia. Reports on the work are made directly to the Ministry of Hygiene and control checks on the blood and spleen indices of school children, together with control checks on mosquito catchings, are made by the representatives of the Rockefeller Foundation on the staff of the School of Hygiene.

In the treatment of swamp areas, the low cost was a factor. The total area under control was 261,000 acres of land crossed with streams, ditches, spotted with irrigation tanks and flowing fountains, and including the major swamp area of 2,500 acres. A total of seven tons of oil was used per season at a cost of \$130.00. The wages of the one sanitation worker were \$39.00 per month, with a part-time assistant at \$15.00 per month during the malaria control season from April first to September first. Large areas of swamp water were protected by drip cans made from petrol tins, at a cost of 35 cents each, filled with crude oil and sunk in areas where they operate under water pressure at the rate of three drops per minute day and night, each can operating for twenty days before refilling.

An average of 600 women and girls were enrolled during the winter months in 92 class sessions per quarter. This was followed up consistently by an average of 770 home visits, with 1,871 persons under care, out of a total population of 3,953.

A stable was rented and reconditioned by the community

and equipped by the Foundation with booths for six individual shower units with hot and cold water at a cost of \$550. Each villager and school child using the bath, supplies one oke (or 2.9 pounds) of wood per bath. School children are assigned to the bath as a regular part of the school activities under instruction of the prefect of the district.

Progress in Malaria Control: The splenic index which was at 42% in a group of 550 examinations at the general clinic in October, 1934, dropped to 11% in June, 1936 in a group of 716 persons. The blood indices dropped from 11% in December, 1934 to one-half of one per cent in September, 1936.

Practically all of the working population were able to be in the fields during the malaria season of 1936 and 1937. For the first time, people were able to bring their families with them for camping in the fields at night, without suffering from mosquitoes.

The catching of *Anopheles superpictus*, formerly found in great numbers, dropped from a peak of 600 cases in specific stations on July 7, 1935, to a peak of 150 on June 15, 1936, and after drainage of a rice field in that season, reached a low of 20 on July 27.

Aids to Family Income: In keeping with the Foundation policy of approaching the problem of the whole standard of living with public health as the main channel, Public Health Director Carr began in 1935 to develop aids to family income by the introduction of weaving, sewing classes, silk culture, better breeds of poultry, distribution of duck eggs, planting of almond trees, and similar aids. We are unable, at this stage of the project, to give conclusive reports as to the effect on family living conditions from these sources, but we quote the following interesting development:

With the aid of the Agricultural Bank of Greece, wooden spinning wheels were introduced to replace the hand distaff methods. At a cost of \$1.97 per spinning wheel, the peasant women may now produce thirty times the amount of yarn formerly produced by hand—yarn with a finer thread. This provides

her with a sufficient supply for weaving the clothing of her family, whereas formerly she was unable to meet their needs.

Some 300 school children were given instruction in the care of silk worms and 50 women were taught silk culture with the result that some of the women averaged an income equivalent to : 25.00 per season from silk material. A private manufacturer in Athens was interested in starting a nursery to supplement the government supply of mulberry trees for the Marathon area and this manufacturer agreed to take a considerable quantity of woven material, with the result that this industry will be greatly enlarged.

As a further aid in building up family income and as a test of relating agricultural instruction to a health and home welfare programme, an agronomist has been assigned to the district at the expense of the Ministry of Agriculture and under the instruction of an American-trained Greek agriculturist. It should be noted that practically all the population devotes itself to agricultural production, principally grapes, other fruits, tobacco, and the raising of sheep. Its main handicap has been the loss of working time from illness, backward farming methods resulting in loss of fruit crops by parasites, and improper use of limited land areas.

Macedonia Project

Clustered around the ancient town of Verria, the Biblical area of St. Paul's travels, are 48 agricultural villages in which Near East Foundation in co-operation with three Ministries of Greece, is conducting a demonstration of technique to raise the level of living. The villages include a population of approximately 40,000 farming people. About 50% of these are drawn from the 560,000 refugees from Asia Minor who were settled in Macedonia out of 1,270,000 entering Greece following

the World War.

It is important to note that the project is approaching the rural problems from four distinct angles more or less following the Four Essentials of Civilization defined by Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones, that is : agriculture, health and sanitation, home welfare, and recreation. The work under American supervision was started in the agricultural division by a man selected from the faculty of the Superior School of Agriculture of Greece, after a year of graduate training in the United States; in the health and sanitation division, by a Greek public health nurse, a graduate from an American hospital; and a sanitation worker, a graduate of a course under the Rockefeller Foundation in Athens. The other phases of the work also have a local executive staff. These supervisors direct ten Greek agriculturists living in the villages, five aides-visiteuses from the School of Hygiene in Athens, five home welfare workers from the National Home Economics School, and graduates from the sanitation course of the School of Hygiene assigned to the demonstration for the practical part of their training.

These workers collaborate as a team in fixed areas, each devoting a portion of his or her time to related aspects of the four-fold programme so that the project constitutes a demonstration in the correlation of public service activities.

The project has become the model for a joint demonstration of Near East Foundation, the British Colonial Office, and the Carnegie Corporation in Cyprus and is under observation by the British Colonial Office for adaptation to other areas under its jurisdiction. In Greece, the Ministry of Agriculture has granted civil status to the Greek agricultural employees and designated the areas as its official training field for agricultural directors and sanitation workers. The principle Greek supervisor in the project has been made head of agricultural education in Greece and one purpose of this move is to relate more closely the national programme and the experience gained in the Macedonia demonstration.

Rural Health Activities: This phase of the Macedonia programme is made a part of the Home Welfare Division. The

aides-visiteuses, who are taken from the School of Hygiene in Athens for their first experience in rural villages, are assigned to centres with home economics workers in teams of two to a centre. There are five demonstration centres in the Macedonia project serving specifically thirteen villages.

The Approach: Only those who visit remote villages and are compelled to live, eat, and spend the night there are in a position to realize the conditions under which the peasants live, even in the enlightened and forward-looking Balkan states. Their home cleanliness is limited or unknown because of lack of fuel supply for hot water or unsatisfactory conditions, sleep is unbearable due to the attack of insects; cooking, sewing, care of children and the sick are extremely primitive. All the above conditions are factors in poor health and low standards of living.

In view of the fact that the peasant women's time is divided into two parts, one devoted to her home and the other spent in the fields working with her family, the home welfare and health programme is divided into two parts—the winter instructional period and the summer season devoted to the operation of day nurseries. The latter period begins about the end of May and continues until the end of August. Working mothers, bringing contributions of food, take their two to six-year-old children to the nursery, leave them to be fed and cared for during the day, and collect them when they return from the fields.

The winter period begins in October and continues until May, with instruction by the visiting nurse to young mothers and girls in general, hygiene, personal hygiene, first aid, home nursing, child care, coupled with demonstration lessons in practical cooking, sewing, and work in housekeeping. Hygiene instruction is extended to the village schools. The workers co-operate with the sanitation workers in construction of latrines, screening windows, draining stagnant water, protecting wells, disinfecting poultry houses, and so forth.

The programme considers the young girl the nucleus. When a child is born, it is followed up once a week in the well-clinic, which includes physical examination, advice to the

mother not only in general care but in the development of simple equipment, such as flat beds versus the swing or hammock method of sleeping, freedom of limbs versus coddling method, protection against flies, and so forth. At the age of two when a good foundation is laid, the department concludes its instruction with a body contest with a prize to the mother of the healthiest baby. The child from two to six years old comes back under the supervision during the summer season in the day nursery. From six to fourteen years the child is followed up in school with preparation for healthful life, the mothers and older women are not excluded. Efforts are made with this group to separate them from old superstitions and traditions.

Sanitation Section: This work reaches into all of the 48 villages under demonstration with a principal malaria control demonstration in the village of Makriyallo. No acute swamp condition existed and the situation arose chiefly from nearby streams and standing water within the village. The following progress may be reported:

Village co-operation was organized to cover open wells and tanks, and to spray nearby streams with oil and Paris Green, the village eventually meeting the full cost of the spraying. The economic aspect of this was soon evident to them as the loss of working days dropped from 9,177 to 343 by 1936 and the expenditure for quinine dropped from 22,484 drachmas to 2,815 by the end of 1936. The blood index was lowered, no doubt principally through the control, from 44% to 17%, as established by an impartial school of Hygiene Survey. By interesting comparison, a village nearby and uncontrolled had a parasite index of 40% in 1936. The demonstration having been completed, the project has been taken over by the Salonica division of the Ministry of Health, as a part of its regular responsibility.

In addition to the above, the sanitation phase of the health and sanitation division, with the assistance of the aides-visiteuses, records the following progress in the 48 villages during a four-year period:

Health Section and Rural Education Section

152 new sources of water supply were established, polluted wells purified or protected and mosquito breeding fountains repaired, benefiting a minimum of 4,560 persons.

463 home latrines were installed to prevent contagion, benefiting 2,315 individuals directly and many more indirectly.

32 village school latrines installed on a basis of sharing the cost with the communities, benefiting approximately 4,290 children directly in school districts without sanitation facilities. Average cost was 65 cents per student.

Mosquito-larvae-consuming fish, known as *Gambusia* were distributed to 30 malaria-stricken villages where we could not establish complete malaria control.

Water supply installation completed for the 850 Petria villagers who had been subsisting on a water supply of two families, the former Turkish owners of the ground now occupied by this refugee village. A "Suicide hole" was drained in this same village and some flood protection was established. The cost was shared 30% by national funds enlisted by our supervisor, 60% by the community, and 10% by the Foundation.

A by-product of minor drainage and fountain repair at Loutrochori village was not only that malaria was reduced but impoverished families reaped \$700 addition to their income by farming in the first year 20 of the 80 acres of land thus reclaimed.

In keeping with the policy in other health projects of building up family income to meet the need for improved living condition, it should be added that instruction in weaving, so that families may make their own clothing, is being organized in the health centres under Miss Meverette Smith, a specialist in this work. But undoubtedly the important factor in improvement of family income rises in the activities of the agricultural division, which now is able to record an average annual increase of 10% in the farm income of the families specifically under instruction and equal in total to ten times the cost of promoting the programme in the field.

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